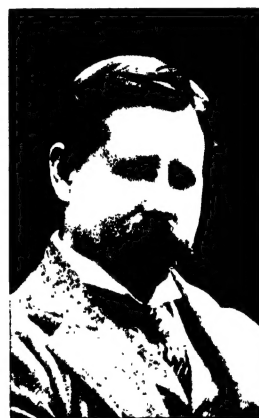
COL. J. A. GRANT

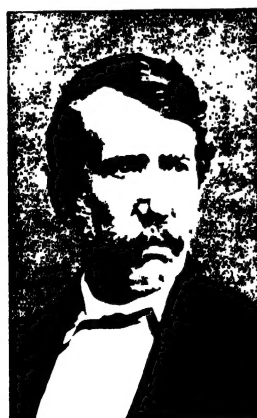
MISS GORDON-CUMMING

From a Portrait

ALEX. VON HUMBOLDT

Bassano

A. H. SAVAGE LANDOR

SIR H. H. JOHNSTON

SIR SVEN HEDIN

DAVID LIVINGSTONE

SIR F. L. M'CLINTOCK

SIR ROBERT M'CLURE

DISTINGUISHED TRAVELLERS AND EXPLORERS III

**James Augustus Grant** (1827–92); Indian army officer; with Speke explored Victoria Nyanza in 1861–63.

**Constance Frederica Gordon-Cumming** (born in 1837); travelled in China, India, Ceylon, Pacific Islands, Egypt, &c.

**Alexander von Humboldt** (1769–1859); German traveller; with Aimé Bonpland in South America and Mexico in 1799–1804; in Central Asia in 1829.

**A. Henry Savage Landor** (born in 1865); travelled in Japan, China, Korea, Mongolia, Tibet, India, Brazil, &c.

**Sir Harry Hamilton Johnston** (born in 1858); North Africa, Angola, and Congo; commanded expedition to Kilimanjaro in 1884; official positions in Kamerun (1885), Niger Coast Protectorate (1887), Mozambique (1888), British Central Africa (1891–1897), Tunis (1897–99), and Uganda (1899–1901); K.C.B. in 1896; G.C.M.G. in 1901.

**Sir Sven Hedin** (born in 1865); Swedish traveller; Persia, Mesopotamia, &c.; Central Asia, 1894–97 and 1899–1902; K.C.I.E., 1909.

**David Livingstone** (1813–73); to Cape as missionary in 1840; discovered Lake Ngami (1849) and Upper Zambesi (1851); across continent in 1852–56; discovered Lakes Shirwa and Nyassa in 1859; discovered Lake Bangweolo in 1868; relieved by Stanley at Ujiji in 1871; died near Bangweolo; buried in Westminster Abbey.

**Sir Francis Leopold M'Clintock** (1819–1907); British admiral; discovered fate of Franklin's expedition in 1859; several Arctic voyages; K.C.B. in 1891.

**Sir Robert John Le Mesurier M'Clure** (1807–73); vice-admiral; discovered North-West Passage in 1854; other Arctic voyages; knighted in 1854.

# THE WORLD OF TO-DAY

A SURVEY OF THE LANDS AND PEOPLES OF THE GLOBE AS SEEN IN TRAVEL AND COMMERCE

BY A. R. HOPE MONCRIEFF

VOLUME III

THE · GRESHAM · PUBLISHING · COMPANY
34 SOUTHAMPTON STREET STRAND LONDON

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# AFRICA

## INTRODUCTION

The compact pear-shaped mass of land over which the Roman name Africa has extended from its northern point, is more than three times as large as Europe, being nearly 5000 miles long, and not much less in breadth at its widest protuberance. The equator runs almost through its centre, and most of it lies within the tropics, so that great sun-heat is the general character of its climate, modified by varying height and other conditions. The coast-line, as a rule, is a low unhealthy tract, behind which rises a rim of mountains, gathering here and there into lofty groups. Within the mountains come plateaux so high that the mean altitude of the continent has been put at 2000 feet. Farther inland, especially along the eastern backbone, these uplands stand still higher, often raised to twice the height of an English mountain, affording a tempered climate close to the equator. In the central region, also, the air is cooled by heavy rains poured down upon a rich belt of tropical vegetation from which flow the great rivers of the continent. At the south, and still more at the north end, large stretches are cursed by a drought and barrenness that react upon each other. We shall find here what seems a confusing inversion of seasons; but in general, what may be taken for the true winter of this continent is the dry heat that burns up grass and leaves; then with the reviving rains comes its sudden spring, followed in favoured parts by a wet summer, after which vegetation begins to be again withered by hot winds as our plants are nipped by the autumn frosts, when an African poet could hardly rejoice in that "good gigantic smile o' the old brown earth". Certain regions of the continent appear to have long been drying up, their water-supply having evidently diminished within the last half-century.

There is reason to believe that in different parts the population of over two hundred millions has also been degenerating in civilization; and, if not absolute, this decline is well marked relatively to the growing vigour of Europe. Carthage and Rome no longer contend on equal terms. Only two or three large states keep a not very coherent or stable independence. The rest are split up into more or less barbarous tribes and confederacies, rendered always more dependent upon white men by their appreciation of material advantages introduced among them. Within our own time, exploration and conquest have advanced with giant strides, hand in hand, over the Dark Continent, most of which is now shared out among European powers, either as settlements, prospering in different degrees, or as protectorates, and vaguer "spheres of influence" within which each nation has undertaken gradually to master the natives for their good as well as for its own.

These natives belong to different stocks, often so fused together as to be hardly distinguishable. In the north the prevalent race is that called the Hamitic, tinged by the blood and more deeply by the Moslem faith of Semite invaders. This makes a transition between the white men and the black negroes of the equator, with whom the Hamites have blended on its north side. On the other side, and over all the southern half of the continent, the prevalent people are the Bantus, who probably were an offshoot of negro blood, and who sometimes have

A Moorish Chief. (From a photograph by Lord Loch)

mingled with an inferior aboriginal stock, still found in a stunted and servile state, most numerously in the south, but also scattered in secluded parts of Central Africa.

Such are the outlines of the continent which we are now to traverse from north to south, surveying it by successive regions that will be found marked off rather by some community of physical features than by lines of political division. Much of these regions has been opened up to geographical knowledge only in our own day, and still great expanses await thorough exploration; but the main features have been fairly well filled in on a map which half a century ago contained so many blank spaces.

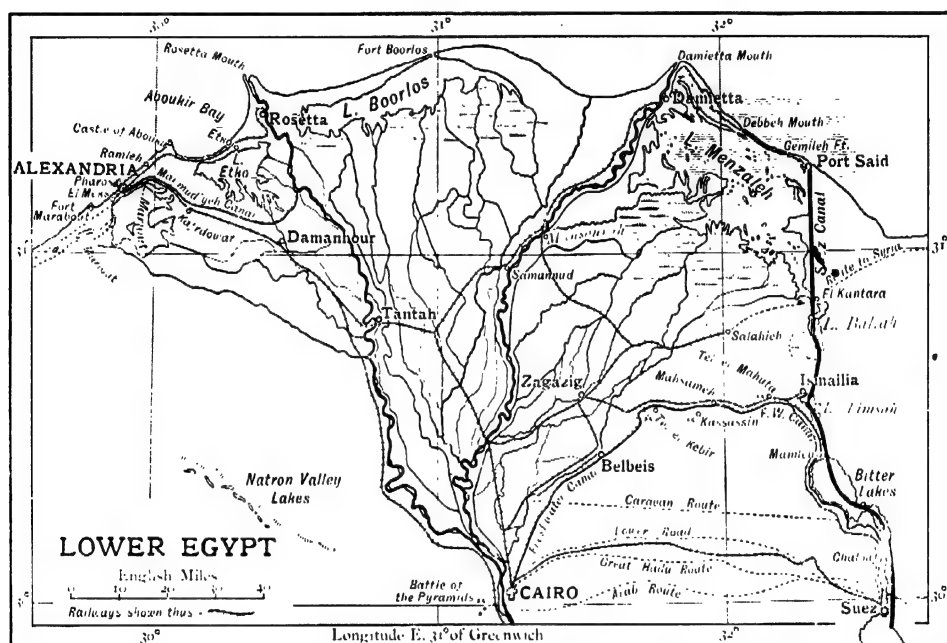
# THE NILE LANDS

Africa was once a great island, when the waters of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea mingled across that neck, where in our time they have been made to meet by human art. But history knows of this channel only as bridged over by drifting sands, which gave a passage from the region of the Euphrates to that of the Nile. In those rich valleys rose the first recorded civilizations, flourishing with mutual intercourse, while most of the world lay in the darkness of barbarism. It appears that Babylon was the older empire; but the wonderfully dry air of Egypt has better preserved the stupendous monuments that, implying a long apprenticeship in culture, take us back beyond the age which till recently was held to be the world's whole lifetime. This celebrated country has been a familiar name in literature since the dawn of history; and its renown has grown since the nineteenth century learned to spell out the records of such a distant past. The very weakness of the power that, after many changes, now represents the Pharaohs' state, rouses another kind of interest in Egypt, bordering as it does a highway between two continents. Its inundated soil is still fertile as when the Nile fed the crowds of ancient Rome. On all accounts, then, there can be no question but that our survey of Africa should begin with the lands of the Nile, now nominally under the rule of a prince whose Joseph can command as well as advise.

## EGYPT

Ancient Egypt draws its life from the Nile, running through it without a single tributary, sucked up by a hot sun and by a thousand miles of thirsty sand, yet pouring down such a volume of water from the equatorial lakes, nearly 4000 miles above, and from the Abyssinian mountains once taken for its main source, that it keeps green a strip of culture extending as far as its current can be drawn aside by the patient industry of a dense population. Little rain falls in a proverbially dry climate, which, indeed, by air currents drawn along the canal and by the plantation of trees, seems to have become slightly moister in the last generation's lifetime. The Egyptian fields have depended almost entirely on the river's annual rise, flooding them for weeks, then subsiding to leave a bed of rich, dark mud, on which crops spring up for the trouble of throwing down the seed. The hot sun does the rest for this favoured strip, so closely shut in by sandy and stony deserts that in winter at least the warm air has an invigorating freshness, cooled often to chilliness at night by quick radiation into a clear sky, and made insufferable only by hot blasts from the

south, which, loaded with desert sand, are a trial to man and beast. Visitors staying too late in Egypt are but too familiar with the *khamsin*, "wind of fifty days", that makes its spring by no means a sweet season. The summer sun grows too scorching for Europeans; but it has not such overwhelming power as in the same latitudes of Asia; and those born under it find the climate on the whole healthy. The question of weather here makes not so much matter as does the state ot the Nile, that has spread every inch of tillable soil on a barren land.

In Nubia, where the stream runs between rocky walls, the culture of the banks is by dots or narrow strips; but below its Cataracts, the slower current, no longer hemmed in, becomes more broadly bordered by fields and more

closely dotted by villages, whose people have lived longer in peace to make the best of their land. By means of basins, canals, ditches, *sakiehs*, that is, creaking water-wheels worked by buffaloes, and *shadoufs*, goatskin buckets let down by hand from a crane, and now often by employing steam pumps, they labour to spread the annual flood; but still the greater part of Egypt is no more than a green riband a few miles wide on either side of the river-bed, shut in by sandy wastes and stony heights, where only patches of oasis bloom about the rare wells. Here and there, traces of old canals and reservoirs show how a wider stretch of ground was once cultivated; and now European engineers are helping the helpless *fellahs* to win back more of their land from barrenness by the construction of works for the storage and distribution of the Nile's waters. The greatest of these works to keep the annual flood from running to waste was long the Barrage below Cairo, begun by the French and finished under our direction by Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff. This has been recently supplemented by a second Barrage, on the Damietta branch, half-way between Cairo and the sea. Now another huge regulating dam has been made at Assiout in Upper

Egypt, and a still greater triumph of engineering is accomplished at Assouan on the southern frontier, where the waters of the Nile are held up by a massive wall more than a mile long, with over 100 sluices, through which 15,000 tons of water may be discharged every second. And the system of Egyptian waterworks is a double one, for not only has the flooding of the fields to be provided for, but the draining off of the inundation when once it has done its reviving work. In the flood season, constant care is needful to keep the embankments from breaking down and the channels from silting up; then, when the river runs low, its guardians have to deal out the precious current economically and fairly. This is more than can be expected of oriental authorities; but since European officials took the matter in hand they have literally earned the praise of making two blades of corn grow instead of one. The great dam at Assouan, costing over two millions of pounds, will, it is believed, add at least as much annually to the wealth of the country.

Photo. Zangaki
Lifting Water by "Shadouf" for Irrigation Purposes

Below Cairo the river expands into the Delta, an area enclosed by two main branches, between which the green riband opens out like a fan. A sprinkling of rain also falls near the coast and up to Cairo, so that Lower Egypt is the richest and most populous part, veined by canals that keep its fields so fertile as often to bear three crops in a year. Forests are not to be seen, and little grows wild, where every inch of ground is turned to raising saleable produce. Then on the coast this exuberant vegetation becomes again blighted through the choking up of the river-mouths, about which large stretches of once fertile land degenerate into reed-choked salt-marshes and wide shallow lagoons cut off from the Mediterranean by low sand-banks. The ruggedest part of the country is along the banks of the Red Sea, where a chain of mountains has points rising to 6000 feet. On the west side of the Nile, the desert is broken by several oases and small salt lakes. The whole extent of Egypt proper may be taken at some 300,000 square miles, of which only 12,000 or 13,000 are productive, nourishing a population that in one part of the Delta rises to 1000 per square mile. By taking in Egypt's recovered Nubian territory and the still more

Photo. T. B. Blow
Donkey Boy, Lower Egypt

thinly peopled Arabian dependency on the Sinai peninsula, her area is considerably increased without much affecting the estimate of her population, which in all was nearly ten millions by the census of 1897.

Arabs is the name loosely given by Europeans to the mass of population; but Arab blood is only one strain modifying a native stock of remote origin. The features of the ancient Egyptians, as portrayed on their monuments, seem best preserved in the Copts, who, kept apart by their clinging to a form of early Christianity, number some few hundred thousands, most at home in the towns and in sedentary employments, like the Jews, while the Moslem majority are the agricultural *fellahs*, also mainly of the ancient stock. True Arabs are represented by tribes of wandering Bedouins living in the deserts that border the fertile strip. Nearly 200,000 Nubians and other inlanders of distinct African type are found chiefly in servile positions. These may have come to Egypt as slaves, a lot at least as favourable as that of the ordinary peasant, and often leading to wealth and social consideration in a country that has no hereditary aristocracy, unless in the proud Turks, or rather Mohammedan foreigners, who were long its patrician oppressors. For long also it has given a livelihood to a proportion of European Christians, merging with the oriental element in the poor Christianity of Syrians and Armenians. Greeks are still the most numerous of Europeans, nearly 40,000; and next to these come Italians. The number of British subjects has naturally increased of late years to some 20,000, but this figure includes Maltese and Indians. After them come the French, who at one time bade fair for preponderance in Egypt, where their language is still an instrument of civilization, though the English tongue is making rapid way. The Swiss afford a small but energetic contingent. Other European nations may be counted by hundreds, though in our generation the Russians have increased sixfold to over 3000. In all, the last census showed more than a hundred thousand foreigners, the better class of whom have seldom a permanent root in the country.

The manners and morals of the majority may easily be outlined. We have only to bear in mind what we have seen of Moslem peoples in Asia, to understand how the long-peaceful Egyptian is a simple-minded and easily-pleased subject, submissive to what seem the decrees of heaven and to any power that bears a

stick over him on earth. Poverty is a school of certain virtues for the peasant; in the towns is better seen how love is degraded to lust, how family life is depraved, and how the home of the rich must be a jail, their wives guarded by eunuchs. The better instructed begin to lose the wholesome restraints of their religion without gaining reverence for higher ideals. The common man punctually performs the mechanical duties of a creed which inspires him with no shame of lying and cheating; while its fatalism overclouds his natural intelligence with a temper of shiftless inertness. His religious zeal is excitable rather than strong; and fanaticism in his case has been dashed by an involuntary respect for the Christian dogs, who somehow have the knack of making the best of a world so hard to the true believer. He is in many ways a grown-up child, quick at learning up to a certain point, but not beyond it, and looking far neither before nor after.

The Egyptian peasant is laborious, temperate, and enduring, as he had need to be. His home is a hovel of mud and straw, thatched with straw or branches, simply furnished with mats and earthenware. His dress is a long cotton tunic, which he often strips off to work in scanty drawers; in cold weather he may wear a goat's-wool cloak, but more indispensable is a felt skull-cap, often covered with a tarboosh or a turban against the heat of the sun. His fare is as simple as his furniture, his own produce making the most of it, with maize or millet bread for staple, and for seasoning beans and other vegetables, fruit, eggs, milk, or cheese. Tobacco and coffee are his treat; the use of hashish his most pernicious vice. Noisy *fantasias* and shows of fireworks are his highest idea of amusement. It is in towns that more luxury must be looked for in dress and food, where men of the better class now affect at least some intermixture of European clothes, but women are all the more particular in veiling their faces and limbs, bedizened by staining, tattooing, and gewgaw ornaments. In the country a fellah's wife may think it enough for decency if she half-veil her face at the passing of a stranger, to whom her husband and her child instinctively hold out their hands with a demand for bakshish.

Photo. T. B. Blow
Man and Wives preparing to Cross the Nile, Cairo

This people has had so many masters, for the most part such bad ones, that it may well have grown feeble in self-respect and the power of self-government. In Egypt's old days, among the dynasties who are dimly seen succeeding each other upon a glorious but un-

easy throne, with a scourge for a sceptre, some were certainly foreign, like the shepherd kings to the last of whom Joseph became vizier. A native line seems to have regained predominance with the Pharaoh "who knew not Joseph", and to have risen to its highest point of sumptuous tyranny with Ramses II., under whom the Israelites were driven to the construction of those vast monuments that record an enslaved people and a boastful king. But this sovereignty was destroyed by internal as well as external foes, and Egypt fell under a succession of Assyrian rulers. Then came the Persians, who were supplanted by Greek conquerors, as they by the Romans. The feeble Byzantine empire was here easily overthrown at the first rush of Mohammedan enthusiasm. The Crusaders failed to wrest Egypt from the Arabs, who reigned for centuries, stamping on the land the impress of their religion, while a minority who had welcomed the invaders as deliverance from their orthodox fellow-Christians, were allowed to retain that monophysite heresy which marked most of the Church's Eastern branches.

Modern history finds in Egypt a singular form of government by an aristocracy of slaves, the Mamelukes, who, torn in childhood from Christian homes, like the Janissaries, were bred to be fierce and unscrupulous Moslem warriors, as formidable to their masters as to the sheep-like flocks they guarded and oppressed. A Turkish conquest in the sixteenth century did not much alter this state of things. The Mamelukes remained the Nile's practical rulers till Napoleon had found them foemen not unworthy of his steel. But the troubles of that time brought forth an adventurer who saw his way to independent sovereignty. In 1811 Mehemet Ali crushed the Mamelukes by a treacherous massacre; then by a more obedient force of Albanians and other mercenaries he made himself not only master of Egypt, but at once an indispensable ally and a dangerous vassal of Constantinople. After helping Turkey against the fanatical Wahabis and the insurgent Greeks, this illiterate and unscrupulous usurper turned upon his suzerain, seized Syria, and might have overrun all Asiatic Turkey, if the European powers had not interfered. Mehemet was forced to resign his conquests, except the Sinai peninsula; but he remained the real master of Egypt, in title hereditary Viceroy of the Porte, to which still goes an annual tribute as the most real act of vassalage.

For a time the dynasty thus founded had flourishing prospects. Under Ismail, who in 1866 assumed the title of Khedive, Egypt seemed almost fit to take the rank of a civilized power. But this apparent progress was soon ruined by the reckless expenditure of a selfish and sensual tyrant varnished over with some coating of western culture, by the utter corruption of his government, and by the plundering of European financial adventurers. The new state went into a sort of international liquidation. A huge debt to European bondholders gave foreign powers reason to interfere, as also did the safety of the Suez Canal, constructed under the French influence then dominant in Egypt. Ismail was deposed in favour of his son Tewfik, a more worthy prince, whose reign for a short time went in leading-strings of a Dual Control by France and England. But the jealousies of these two powers worked ill in such harness. When Arabi and his mob of discontented soldiers aped the part of patriots, France hung back, while England took on herself the task of suppressing the rebellion, as was done with a single blow at Tel-el-Kebir.

Since then a small British army has remained in occupation of Egypt, and

British officials have undertaken the hard task of reorganizing its government, army, and finances. This occupation, originally intended to be temporary, has now lasted for over twenty years, looked on askance by other powers, who yet must own that we are making a good job of our interference. Except the French, who cannot forgive us for taking the lead here which they let slip, all respectable foreigners in Egypt welcome our domination, as do all its creditors. Yet France, with her spirit of regularity and consistency, would probably have failed in an effort where England succeeds in virtue of her practical way of dealing with things as she finds them, and turning them to the best account regardless of

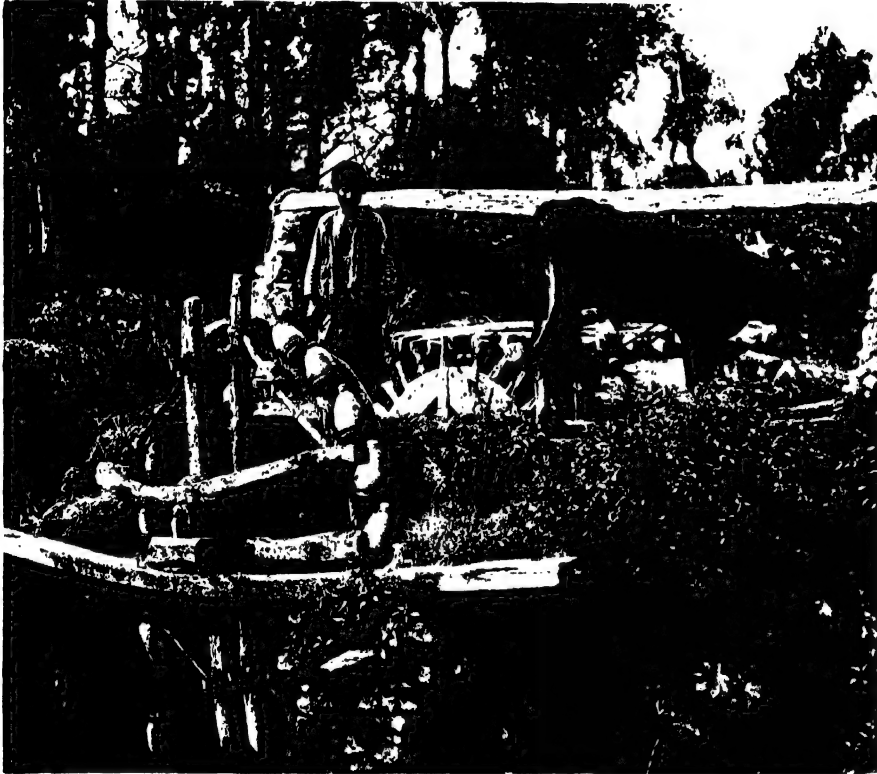



Photo. Zangaki

Egyptian "Sakieh", for lifting Water for Irrigation

logical system. How knotty is the task of our administrators, they themselves best know; but history will recognize the ability, the patience, and the uprightness with which they have performed it under most difficult circumstances. They are hampered by having to exercise their real mastery in the name of a sovereign who is himself a nominal viceroy of one of the most obstructive powers, and to a large extent through native officials bred in traditions of tyranny and corruption. Every reform has cost friction with Egyptian ministers, who either at heart hated improvement, or not unnaturally resented its being dictated by these peremptory strangers. The regenerators of the country have, so to speak, been carrying on its business with bailiffs in possession, the Great Powers that put in an execution, claiming a right of advice and interference wherever came into question that debt of more than a hundred millions, with which poor Egypt was

burdened in its youth as a modern nation. Its present managers have had to deal not only with the docile fellahs, but with a population of foreigners who claim to stand outside of the law, under the jurisdiction and protection of their own consuls. They have had to reckon at once with native suspicion, with European grudges, and with the sentimental moods of their own countrymen, who will not always recognize that freedom must be given in small doses to a long abject nation. Of late, discontent has raised a scowling head against the administrators who devote themselves to their thankless labour of setting straight Egyptian confusion. They have abolished the practical slavery in which the mass of the people lived, and the corrupt cruelty which passed for justice. They have done much to form an able and honest judiciary, and an efficient civil service, out of unpromising materials. They have turned the spiritless Egyptian soldiery into an army that under British officers has fought well both alone and beside our own troops; and whereas military service was formerly so hateful that numbers of the peasantry would mutilate themselves to escape it, the conscription of picked men now ceases to be felt as a grievance. They have so much stimulated the produce of the land, that its oppressive taxes, fairly collected, can be decreased along with an increase of revenue. They have reduced the huge national debt, and lessened its pressure by giving lower interest in return for better security. While checking ruinous expenditure, they have usefully laid out large sums in the works of irrigation on which the country's wealth depends. Keeping themselves as far as possible in the background, they have now and then stepped forward to shove on the machine of constitutional government that so much lacks honest and skilful operatives. All classes are better off for their labours, except the Turkish pashas, no longer privileged to thrive upon the common misery. In short, Egypt has been enormously benefited by a control which was almost forced upon its present masters, but which they see it their duty to retain till this unfortunate country be fit to stand alone, the Japan of Africa.

A steady increase in the productions of Egypt, during the British occupation, shows how it needs only good government to be a richer country. The bulk of its population make their living from the soil. Half its revenue comes from the land tax, formerly raised by a trial of strength between the rapacity of unscrupulous collectors and the practised endurance of the fellah under the bastinado or the cruel kourbash. As in the days of Joseph, a good deal of the land, especially in the Delta, has passed into the hands of the government, and now of its creditors; other parts are in the hands of rich landlords; but the fellah is usually a peasant-proprietor, too often burdened by private debt to exorbitant usurers, who have thriven on helping him to meet the exactions of authority; this business, largely carried on by Greeks, who in Egypt bear the bad name given elsewhere to Jews will, it is hoped, suffer loss by the establishment of a public agricultural bank. As in other ill-ruled oriental lands, it is difficult to estimate the people's wealth, since the common man is only now learning that he has nothing to gain by pretending indigence, and that the law will protect him in the enjoyment of honest prosperity.

The cultivator, under favourable circumstances, expects to reap at least two crops from his flooded fields. In winter, after the inundation, are grown wheat, barley, lentils, beans, clover, &c. In summer follow cotton, rice, sugar-cane, and tobacco. Maize and millet can be sown in some parts while the land is

still under water. The most valuable crop for export is cotton; then come wheat, sugar, beans, and tobacco. Onions and sugar-canes are grown chiefly on the upper banks of the river. Mulberries, sycamores, figs, oranges, lemons, and other fruits are cultivated in the delta and the oases, the date-palm being among the most useful, as from its branches and fibres are made many articles of native furniture, mats, cordage, and so on. Such indigenous industries as gold and silver work, ornamental fabrics and pottery, have been supplemented by the encouragement of sugar-refineries and cotton and silk weaving, but for manufactured goods Egypt still depends chiefly on foreign countries; and the growth of her imports has of late corresponded with that of her export trade. The manufacture of paper out of halfa-grass has been introduced with success;

Egyptian Straw-cutter at work, with Buffalo and Camel yoked together — Photo, J. P. Sebah

while the papyrus that gave us our word *paper* has almost disappeared from Egypt proper, as has the lotus-flower, once an emblem of Egyptian religion. The extraction of natron and salt goes to make up for the barrenness of certain stretches of soil; gold is being worked in Upper Egypt between the river and the Red Sea; in other parts are found nitrates, phosphates, and petroleum; else, mineral wealth here chiefly consists in limestone, sandstone, and granite quarries of the desert hills, while the common building material, in the country parts, is the sun-baked mud of the Nile.

The stock of the Egyptian farmer includes horses, asses, mules, with the ox, the buffalo, and the camel, all which may be seen unequally yoked together to the rude plough that here and there begins to be supplanted by Western implements. The martial Mamelukes preserved a good breed of horses, which has been allowed to deteriorate; the camel is the most useful beast of burden, and the donkey plays a large part in city as well as country life. In Upper Egypt goats and sheep are more common; in the rich delta lands rather are cattle bred

under difficulties through frequent disease and the scarcity of clover and other fodder in the hot season, where the arable surface, yearly renewed, is too valuable to be laid out in pasture. Pigeons and poultry are much reared, the latter often hatched by artificial incubation, which is one of the old industries of the country; the former, it is said, levying too large a tax on the fields their dung goes to manure. Eggs are complained of by purchasers as running very small; and, indeed, the breed of fowls, as of other domestic animals, seems rather worked out, like the Egyptian wheat, which, for want of certain fertilizing elements, is poor in nourishment. Fish, largely caught in the shallow coast lakes, salted and cured, give a considerable supply of food.

Wild birds of many kinds are abundant on the Nile, some of them natives of our northern climes who spend the winter here like well-to-do invalids. Fierce carnivora have nearly disappeared from Egypt proper, as has the crocodile from the Lower Nile. Wild boars, jackals, and hyenas may still be found slinking or lurking where they can find cover. Venomous snakes and poisonous spiders infest chiefly the desert edges; but more feared are the visitations of devastating locusts. The scarab beetles of Egypt are famous; and infamous rather is its chronic plague of flies, fleas, mosquitoes, and other insect pests that set the stranger wondering if the spell of Moses can ever have been undone.

A sight as common as loathsome is flies clustering upon the dirty faces of the children. This is suspected of spreading ophthalmia, that characteristic disease of a land of irritating dust, where small-pox and other contagious diseases also are chronic, and true Moslem neglect of sanitary precautions invites outbreaks of plague and cholera. Healthy as the climate is, a majority of the children die young through the ignorance of their parents and the want of medical care. Every European traveller in the country will be pestered or saddened by the touching faith with which these poor parents beg him to work miracles on the result of their own disobedience to the laws of life.

The typical Egyptian is a villager. Great cities here are few if famous, the largest being Cairo, with a population growing on to 660,000. Alexandria, with over 300,000, comes next, which, fallen from its ancient greatness, has revived as the chief port of modern Egypt. The ports of Rosetta and Damietta, at the mouths of the two great branches of the Nile to which they give their names, have been silted up; the former much decayed, while Damietta still supports 30,000 people by its silk and cotton weaving. In the interior of the Delta, the chief towns are Tanta, Mansura, Damanhur, Mehalla el Kubra, and Zagazig, with others having a population of under 20,000. The place that has grown fastest of late years is Port Said, at the Mediterranean mouth of the Suez Canal, which, on the edge of the desert, has already over 40,000 people, and the name of being one of the wickedest places in the world, through the gambling-hells and dens of polyglot vice that flourish behind its grimy coaling-wharfs. Ismailia, a mainly European colony on a lake in the middle of the canal, "a play-box village set out by a child on a white tablecloth", is the nearest port to Cairo. The old port, Suez, at the southern end, standing a little way back from the present harbour, has lost rather than gained since it was the central point of the overland route to India. These three places are connected by rail with Cairo. Nearly all the other towns are strung along the course of the Nile, where we shall visit them presently in tracing it upward.

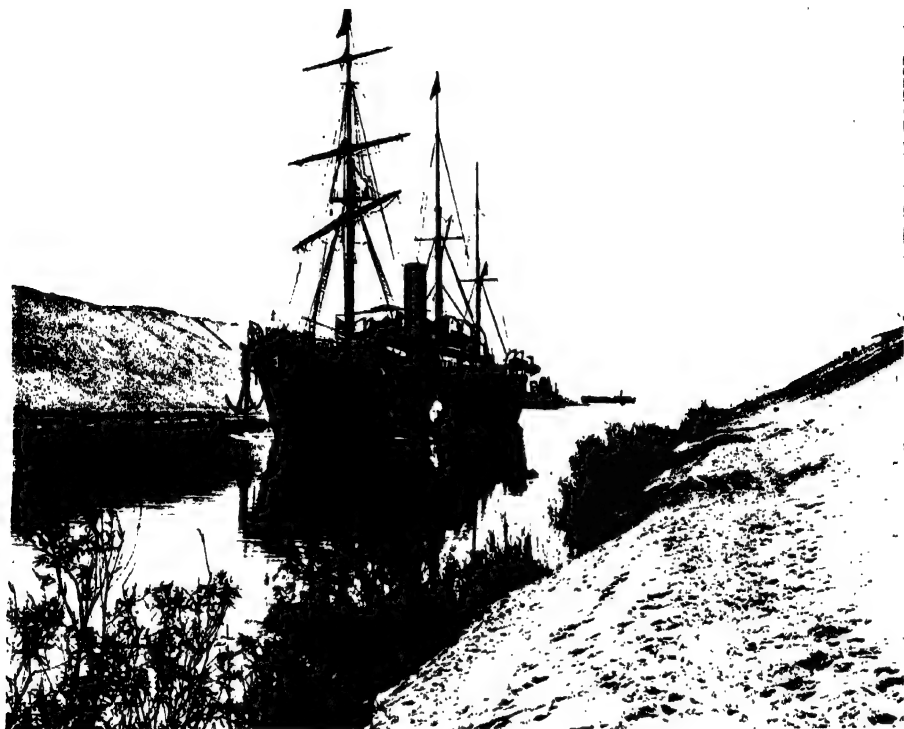
The two main divisions, Lower Egypt or the Delta, and Upper Egypt, the

valley of the Nile up to its cataracts, are marked off into provinces governed by *mudirs*, who in times past have often been oppressive satraps, but now find themselves more closely overlooked by the central power. The Khedive is supposed to be no longer a despot, but rules by advice of a cabinet on European models, along with a consulting legislative council and an assembly elected by popular suffrage, neither of which bodies has as yet made itself much felt in public affairs. Large sums have been spent on railways, telegraphs, and post service. Public education is advancing, though still very backward among the masses; the best schools are those conducted under missionary or other foreign auspices. The currency is silver *piastres*, worth about 2½*d.* each, 100 of which go to an Egyptian pound; and the old native *paras* are replaced by small nickel and copper coins making decimal parts of a piastre. Confusion was caused by the use, in large cities, of current piastres, worth half the tariff piastres; but this anomaly is dying out. French and English money is in circulation, charges at hotels being usually made in shillings or francs. The hotels, if much better than in India, are twice as expensive. A visit to the Nile, as the annual tens of thousands of tourists find, is somewhat costly; but many would be glad to compound for higher rates, could they only be free from the endless beggary, importunity, and imposture that for strangers makes such a plague of modern Egypt.

Photo. T. B. Blow

Scene on the Sweet-water Canal

Before embarking on the Nile, however, let us turn for a moment to that great artificial feature that has given its chief country a new importance to the world, though it be questionable how far this is a benefit to the people of Egypt. The Suez Canal, though of modern achievement, is a very ancient project. Since the days of the great Sesostris, successive rulers have undertaken to keep open a communication between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean by way of the Nile.

A trace of their work remains along the line of the so-called Sweet-water Canal through the old "Land of Goshen", which was restored to supply drinking-water to the labourers engaged in making the modern channel. This direct communication between sea and sea, an idea of Napoleon's, came to be carried out by the energy of the French engineer, De Lesseps, mainly with French encouragement, England holding back from the enterprise till it proved a success, when she plumed herself on purchasing the main block of shares, an excellent investment that has largely increased in value. With various hindrances the canal was completed in ten years, at a cost of 20 millions, at first by forced native labour,

An Ocean Liner passing through the Suez Canal. (From a photograph

afterwards by an army of Continental navvies; then in 1869 it was opened to such notable result, bringing down the voyage to India from months to weeks, and shifting the commercial importance of Calcutta to Bombay, while giving a short cut to Australia as to the Far East.

The canal is about a hundred miles long, its artificial stretches joining a chain of briny lakes and lagoons, through which its course is marked by luminous buoys and beacons. The passage may be made in a long day, now that electricity has obviated the necessity of stopping traffic through the night, when coloured lights serve as signals to arrest ships going in one direction or the other, their progress regulated from the stations that alternately set flowing the stream of eastern and of western traffic, between banks of what seems snow in the cold glare of a search-light. Its use has so much increased, that the bed of the canal has had to be widened to over two hundred feet, and somewhat deepened; but this and the heavy recurrent expenses of keeping open the gigantic waterway are amply met

by its high charges, which, coming to thousands of pounds for a big liner full of passengers, at present bring in about 4 millions for the annual passage of some 15 million tonnage, the larger part British. An international agreement declares the Suez Canal neutral; it remains, indeed, to be seen how this ordinance would stand the strain of war. The desert on either hand is certainly of little value, its liveliest sign of habitation being the trim station buildings at regular intervals, round which the exiled officials strive to nurse a dusty garden, among white sands that have a strange wintry look in the hottest sunshine. These patches of artificial oasis are linked to Europe by telegraph wires running through a waste of silent sand dotted with tussocks of dusty shrubs, among which now and then appear some group of picturesquely dirty Arabs, who seem to scowl at travellers passing free from blackmail, or bakshish. The rain-clouds drawn along its course from the Mediterranean, begin to spread fresh cultivation upon this waterway of nations, that makes a boundary between Asia and Africa, but not the frontier of Egypt, whose territory, as we have seen, extends into the northern part of Arabia.

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## THE EGYPTIAN NILE

The first sight of Egypt for many travellers is Alexandria's forest of masts rising apparently from the sea, then the harbour fortifications still scarred by the English bombardment in 1882. Behind the long projecting mole, which forms a double harbour, the city stands on a low bar of sand separating the Mediterranean from the shallow waters of Lake Mareotis behind, which would swamp the flat country were they not pumped away. As the chief link of Egypt with Europe, Alexandria has a large foreign population, and about the great square in which stands a statue of Mehemet Ali, its modern refounder, the French-named boulevards and regularly-built lines of offices, shops, and cafés suggest rather the Continent than the East. Behind this veneer of civilization, indeed, one can easily lose one's self in labyrinths of native squalor and mongrel scoundrelism. In the cramped bazaars, one has no longer any doubt of being in Africa; and even in the open streets, as Mr. C. D. Warner notes, the stranger soon "finds all the pictures that he remembers in his illustrated books of Eastern life. There is turbaned Ali Baba, seated on the hind-quarters of his sorry donkey, swinging his big feet in a constant effort to urge the beast forward; there is the one-eyed calender, who may have arrived last night from Baghdad; there is the water-carrier, with a cloth about his loins, staggering under a full goat-skin—the skin, legs, head, and all the members of the brute distended, so that the man seems to be carrying a drowned and water-soaked animal; there is the veiled sister of Zobeide riding a gray donkey astride, with her knees drawn up (as all women ride in the East), entirely enveloped in a white garment which covers her head and puffs out about her like a balloon." But among these figures, we have too much in evidence the unpicturesqueness of sophisticated Young Egypt, sallow and slack, aping the costume of the west as he adopts its vices in addition to his own.

Alexandria shows few remnants of the ancient glory of temples, palaces, and schools that celebrated it hundreds of years after its foundation by the ambitious Macedonian king. The obelisks known as "Cleopatra's Needles", have in our time been far removed, one to New York, one to the Thames Embankment. The

Outside a Café, Cairo Photo T. B. Blow

foundations of the famous Pharos, it is said, may be seen beneath the sea. On what seems to have been the highest point of the old city, still stands "Pompey's Pillar", commemorating a prefect of Diocletian's reign; this, perhaps, was one of the shafts of the magnificent Serapeum destroyed by Christian zeal, as the great library is said to have been by Moslem conquerors. Near it, and elsewhere in the outskirts, there are the interesting Christian tombs of the Catacombs; but the churches, convents, and mosques of the city have not many remarkable features. The best show of antiquity is in the collections of a museum, second only to that of Cairo.

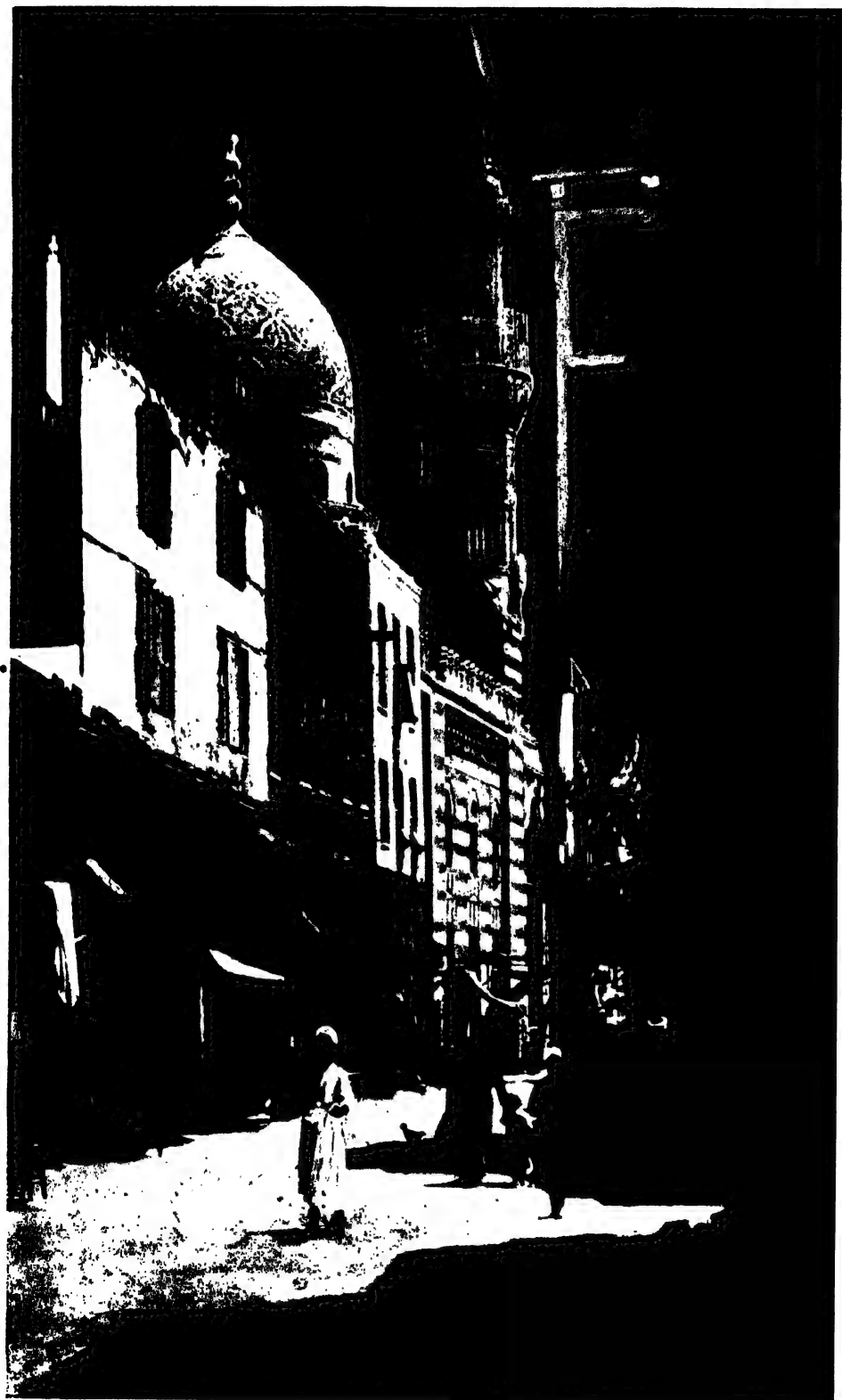
Modern as Alexandria is in the main, it hardly contents its well-to-do European residents, who prefer to live in the villas of Ramleh and other sea-side resorts to the east. Through these runs a railway line passing on round the Bay of Aboukir to Rosetta, near the western mouth of the Nile, a town half-ruined as Alexandria has re-risen, its name best known now by the discovery of the Rosetta Stone, on which a trilingual inscription first gave Egyptologists a key to decipher the ancient hieroglyphics.

By a canal Alexandria is connected with the western branch of the Nile, that makes a slow highway up to Cairo, more than a hundred miles inland. This journey is done in a few hours by the first railway made in Egypt, now branched over the monotonously rich level of the Delta. Once it has passed the barren stretch of Lake Mareotis, the train takes us by thriving towns and villages, round which the country for leagues is like one great garden, its corn-fields variegated by squares of clover and lucerne, by motley poppies, and white-fleeced cotton plants, by clumps of sugar-cane, by patches of maize, linseed, and other crops strange to a northern eye, by wide beds of vegetables and rows of climbing vines, by groves of fruit-trees and avenues of cool shade along the roads, all intersected by water channels, on which the wheels of the *sakiehs* go round, and the *shadouf* cranes rise and fall in the ceaseless labour of fighting such blight as has fallen on the sands and marshes of the coast. This broad culture begins to contract where the Nile's parting is marked by brickworks of the Barrage, chief organ of that elaborate system of contrivances for irrigation and drainage, on which, like the veins and arteries of the human body, the Delta depends for its flush of green. Then through a fringe of

## A STREET SCENE, CAIRO

"Perhaps the greatest attraction for at least passing visitors [to Cairo] will always be the streets themselves, narrow, tortuous lanes winding through the old quarters, veritable *al fresco* museums of Saracenic art and architecture, with no two houses alike, but all exceeding quaint and picturesque, with their endless variety of corbels, gables, and tiers of projecting latticed casements."—*Stanford's Compendium* (*Africa, Vol. I*).

"The street scenes presented by the city of the Khalifs afford an inexhaustible fund of amusement and delight, admirably illustrating the whole world of Oriental fiction, and producing an indelible impression on the uninitiated denizen of the West. . . . Most of the streets in the old part of the town are still unpaved, and they are often excessively dirty. Many of them are so narrow that there is hardly room for two riders to pass, and the projecting balconies of the harems with their gratings often nearly meet. The busy traffic in these streets presents an 'interminable, ravelled, and twisted string of men, women, and animals, of walkers, riders, and carts of every description. Add to these the cracking of the drivers' whips, the jingling of money at the tables of the changers established at every corner of the street, the rattling of the brazen vessels of the water-carriers, the moaning of the camels, braying of donkeys, and barking of dogs, and you have a perfect pandemonium.'"—*Baedeker's Egypt.*

J. P. Sebah

A STREET IN CAIRO, EGYPT

palm-trees comes a glimpse of the pyramids, and on the desert edge rise Cairo's citadel and minarets.

The capital of Egypt, also, may at first sight disappoint those who expect the East to be all unfamiliar wonders. The Esbekiyeh quarter, the chief resort of foreigners, has been made "French and fine" regardless of expense; and the European and semi-European costumes that abound about its pavements and gardens break in upon visions of romance. But here, too, Oriental picturesqueness soon asserts itself in the common people; and when one passes into the Mouski, an old chief thoroughfare traversing the bazaar quarter, the pale faces of western invalids and idlers seem only to set off the stronger hues shot through the native crowds, where white, brown, and black mingle in a "salad of nationalities", upon which, like a radish here and there, is dotted the red coat of Tommy Atkins, crudest tint of all in this living kaleidoscope. And to forget the intrusive elements, one has only to step aside into the bewildering bazaars, miles on miles of winding alleys and tiny shops and work-places, each trade having its own quarter, and the whole city being walled off into wards, each with its troops of hungry dogs. The flat roofs of the close-packed, ill-lighted dwellings must make a curious prospect from the minaret towers emerging here and there above; but such a prospect is not invited, blind men being preferred for the duty of thence calling the faithful to prayers, that eyes may have no chance of spying upon suspicious domesticity. In the labyrinths below, often foul with the slow mouldering of centuries, one can find a surfeit of unfamiliar sounds and smells and sights, the many wares that neighbour each other matching the various shades of human flesh that throng these narrow, crenellated ways, dimly lit by a strip of blue sky half-hidden by awnings, carved lattices, and jutting gables, and now and then opening into some wider gathering of business and warm glow of colour in silks and carpets.

Photo. T. B. Blow

Food Vendor, Cairo

Yet anywhere may turn up the intrusive Frank, for, as more than one traveller insists, half the charm of Cairo comes through losing one's self in the native quarter, where he can stare at noisy marriage and funeral processions, join groups gathered about the snake-charmers and conjurers who have kept their secrets here since the days of Moses, or be escorted into the dens in which, to ear-splitting music, bedizened hussies exhibit their ungraceful lascivious pos-

turings for amateurs of such dissipation. As for the squares, boulevards, and palaces, to which modern Egypt points with such pride, one can see as much without coming so far from home, though at home one does not see a black eunuch on the box of a smart European equipage, and a bare-footed, red-capped saice running before to clear the way for his master. In the modern quarter, stretching down to the Nile, live the foreign visitors, with the rest of Cairo for spectacle, full of artistic and archæological interest. "It is the only Eastern city", says Gérard de Nerval, "where one can find very distinct layers of several historic ages. . . . The epoch of the Caliphs, that of the Soudans, and that of the Mameluke Sultans are naturally related to various systems of architecture, of which Spain and Italy only possess in part the counter-proofs and models. At each step through the streets of Cairo, the Moorish marvels of Granada and of Cordova are recalled by a mosque door, a window, a minaret, an arabesque, the cut and style of which fix its distant date. The mosques alone would narrate the whole history of Mussulman Egypt, for each prince has had built at least one, desiring to hand down for ever the memory of his epoch and of his glory." Much as Cairo has changed since the residence of this lively writer, it still can be pronounced, in part, one of the most Eastern cities of the East.

Months may be spent on the sights of Cairo. The mosques alone number hundreds, most of them now open to unbelieving curiosity, on payment of a fee, and some kept by the care of us infidels from falling into ruin, which was more than their own devotees have done for them. The most venerable of these is the Tulun Mosque, built at the end of the ninth century, remarkable for its pointed arches and ram's-horn minaret. The largest and finest, that may be looked on as the native cathedral, is that of Sultan Hassan, dating from the fourteenth century, constructed, like others, of stones taken from the Great Pyramid, and even in its dilapidated state putting to shame the great modern mosque beside it. The mosque of El-Azhar makes a native university, where thousands of scholars, boys and men, may be seen rocking themselves to that monotonous repetition of sacred texts that here passes for learning. Other mosques are noted for the performances of those howling and twirling Dervishes who make a gaping stock of their unedifying ecstasies. Many are venerated as the ruinous tombs of the Mameluke caliphs and sultans, the most beautiful that of Kait Bey, which has been restored under British auspices. In Old Cairo, two or three miles outside the present city, is the very ancient but largely rebuilt mosque of Amru, with its forest of pillars spoiled from still older temples; and here, also, are some interesting old Coptic churches, with traces of a Roman stronghold. The most conspicuous mosque is the modern one of Mehemet Ali, whose alabaster dome and slender minarets tower imposingly from the height of the Citadel; but its architecture and ornamentation appear poor beside the work of older days, while the way in which its construction has been scamped, like that of most Khedivial buildings, some of them already falling into disrepair, forms a marked contrast to the stability of the Pharaohs' monuments.

The Citadel, originally built by Saladin of stones from the Pyramids, overlooks Cairo on a spur of the Mokattam Hills that extend far down the east side of the Nile. Unless as commanding the city by its guns, it is not a very formidable fortress now, being itself commanded from the heights above. Its most moving memory is the massacre of the Mamelukes here in 1811, when

only one escaped by leaping his horse from the walls, according to a legend discredited by the sober muse of Murray's Guide, which tells us how the Citadel is a small town now occupied as British barracks, the vice-regal palace being turned into officers' quarters. The Mint, the Arsenal, and other public buildings are included. From the terrace outside the great mosque there is a grand view of Cairo, of the green Nile valley expanding into the Delta, and of the desert beyond with its fringe of pyramids, an epitome of all Egypt.

The nearest and most famous pyramids are the Ghizeh group, that make the chief lion of Cairo, a few miles away. The road to them goes over the Nile by a bridge crossing the Gezireh island, on which an extravagant vice-regal

Photo. Photochrom Co., Ltd.

Old Cairo and the Citadel

palace is now an hotel. Farther down, the gardened island of Roda is the site of the Nilometer, a pillar marked in cubits, on which the height of the river is watched and daily proclaimed throughout the city from July till the end of September, a rise of 25 or 26 feet being considered satisfactory. Opposite this, on the western side, another palace had housed for some years the renowned Museum that afterwards became transferred to a new building in the city, now containing the chief collection of national antiquities and mummies, specimens of which have been scattered widely over the civilized world. The Arab Museum, in one of the city mosques, is of interest to the student of Arab art and civilization. For long the remains so thick upon the Nile were neglected, their stones used as quarries by the ignorant and greedy Arabs, who, when Europe began to take an interest in Egypt, were ready to make money by plundering the embalmed corpses and emblems of kings from richly-adorned tombs given up to be homes for bats and reptiles. Now, in many cases too late, these antiquities

are taken into official care, protected against robbery, and shown by tickets, the charge for which must make no inconsiderable part of the national revenue.

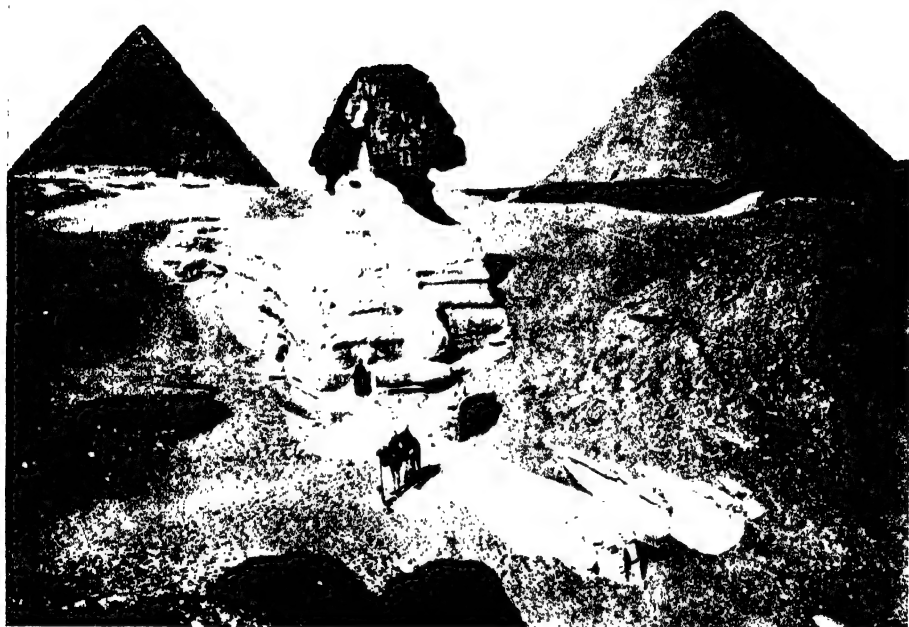
At Ghizeh the road turns away from the river, crossing the fertile strip by an avenue of shady sycamores and acacias that leads out to the open desert, where, on a rocky platform, rise the sharp outlines of the Great Pyramid and its satellites. The trip from Cairo is now made by an electric tram; and not less incongruous seems a first-rate English hotel under the shadow of those immemorial monuments, about which red-coated Britons may be seen playing golf over the dust of the Pharaohs. But the over-awing spirit of this scene is still more harshly broken in upon by the noisy Arab rabble who hang about to pester strangers under pretence of guiding them. Ignorance of Arabic is no protection against these undesired *ciceroni*, who have usually picked up enough English or French to make themselves troublesome without being intelligible, and who persistently dog footsteps in vain seeking some solitary spot for congenial contemplation. The foreigner's fairest chance of shaking off such greedy chatterers is putting himself in the hands of a guide who will monopolize the exploitation of his curiosity. There is a fixed charge to be paid to the sheikh of the tribe, who have appointed themselves guardians and vendors of sham antiquities here; but fixed charges are a notion foreign to the land of bakshish.

Photo J. P. Sebah

Climbing the Great Pyramid

The Great Pyramid of Cheops, as is well known, would fill the largest square in London and overtop the dome of St. Peter's, its sides being about 755 feet long, and its now somewhat truncated top 450 feet high, so that it may well have taken, as Herodotus declares, the labour of 100,000 men for thirty years. It was originally encased in smooth, white stone, which has been torn away, and now stands a naked mass of rough, brown blocks, forming arduous

steps by which agile Arabs haul and shove breathless visitors to the flat space on the summit, that at sunset throws its shadow nearly a mile across the plain. The interior also may be visited at the cost of some dusty groping, magnesium wire being used to throw a strange illumination upon the galleries and chambers in which a despot prepared his last home to be violated thus after the lapse of ages. The sides of this and other pyramids face square to points of the compass; and one theory holds them to have been huge instruments of mathematical observation as well as "the grandest graves in the world".

Of the three prominent pyramids in this group, the second is hardly inferior in dimensions to the great one. In it, when opened by Belzoni, was found the

The Sphinx and the Two Great Pyramids Photo. Bonfils

mummy of the king for whom it was built nearly five thousand years ago. The third is considerably smaller, its height and sides about half the measurements of the Great Pyramid. It has been conjectured that each king began his tomb at the opening of the reign, and that the size corresponds with its duration. About these are six still smaller ones in worse preservation, which here seem dwarfed, though elsewhere they would pass for gigantic piles. There are also the remains of many other tombs and temples that went to make up this royal cemetery. And most impressive of all is that still older and more mysterious monument, the Sphinx, half-buried in the sands that from time to time have to be cleared away from its head. Hewn out of solid rock, the body of the monster is 140 feet long, and its face 30 feet high, once crowned by a helmet which, like its beard of stone, has been broken away. Disfigured as the huge countenance is by mutilation and weather-wearing, it still wears an awful air of majesty; some have fancied on it a mocking smile for short-lived human

glory, and the eyes often seem alive with the secret of its own prehistoric origin, far behind the centuries through which so many vast galleries came to be sculptured or painted with triumphal processions of forgotten Pharaohs, and solemn emblems of a long silent faith.

In all there are over seventy pyramids, large and small, scattered along the Nile upon its edge of fertile ground; some of them built in less enduring brick, and some whose stones have fallen into shapeless ruin. To the south of Ghizeh is the Sakkara group, where the great Step Pyramid is thought to be the oldest in Egypt. Here was the necropolis of the ancient capital Memphis, now buried beneath the Nile mud, the chief remains of its magnificence being two colossal statues of Ramses the Great. In the tombs of Sakkara are some remarkable paintings illustrating Egyptian life five thousand years ago; and under the desert sands have been excavated an avenue of sphinxes leading to the vast Apis Mausoleum, in which sacred bulls were buried as sumptuously as those who held them holy. The prolific literature of Egyptology guides us to the groups of Abousir, Dahshur, and others of the chain, at the south of which comes the tower-like Medum Pyramid, far seen on its rocky pedestal above the windings of the Nile, where, for a day's voyage, it is kept in view, first on one side then on the other, now apparently close to the bank, and again leagues away.

On the other side of the Nile, below Cairo, is the site of Heliopolis or On, at whose temple Moses may have learned the wisdom of the Egyptians, and Plato is said to have studied there for years. Hence came originally the expatriated obelisks known as Cleopatra's Needles; and here still stands an older obelisk, as it did in the eyes of Abraham. More questionable relics are the Virgin's tree and well, where the Holy Family is believed to have rested on their flight into Egypt. As signs of our own times, we find in this neighbourhood an ostrich farm, started by Ismail Pasha, and huge barracks, at which British officers train Egyptians and Nubians into an army that has already won its spurs, no longer by running away, as used to be the manœuvre best performed by the Khedive's soldiers. On this side of the Nile also are the Baths of Helouan, a modern spa, flourishing on sulphur, iron, and chalybeate springs. The hills above are scarred by the great quarries from which came the stone used in casing the Pyramids. Another sight in the Mokattam Hills is the fossil trees, spoken of as the remains of a petrified forest; but it is doubtful if this wood was native to Egypt.

Further excursions may be made from Cairo to exceptional spots of the country. Where the last southern pyramid tours above the river, westward lies the Fayoum hollow, "Oasis of Roses", watered by a canal that bears the scriptural Joseph's name. Once more extensive, like its shrunken lake, this region is being restored by irrigation channels and light railways to the old prosperity attested by Græco-Roman and earlier ruins, among which have been found remarkable papyrus manuscripts and the first known oil-paintings. The chief town of the Fayoum is Medina, a place of 40,000 people, near the site of the ancient Arsinoe or Crocodilopolis, and not far from an extraordinary mass of temples called the "Labyrinth", connected with the worship of the crocodile, and so utterly overthrown that their very site was long doubtful.

A very arduous trip used to be through the Libyan desert to the valley of the Natron Lakes, that besides its bulrushes has salt and soda for harvest, and for attraction to strangers a cluster of old Coptic convents and churches which have

held out here against Arab jealousy. This curious district also is about to be opened up by a railway. Hitherto, few mere tourists got so far; and fewer will emulate Alexander in seeking the oasis of Ammon on the Tripolitan frontier, once famed for its oracle. There are two more considerable oases, known as the Lesser and the Greater, lying out in the desert, the latter as far south as Luxor.

When the traveller is satiated with the spectacles of Cairo, his next duty is to ascend the Nile as far as the Cataracts, or at least for four or five hundred miles of its winding course up to Luxor, where another winter settlement of Europeans has been made beside most impressive monuments of antiquity. The journey

Photo. Photochrom Co., Ltd.

A *Dahabeah* on the Nile, Cairo

is done by mail boats or tourist steamers; by rail, too, up the bank, if one be in haste; but for those who can afford time and money, the most luxurious and leisurely way of making the trip is by hiring a *dahabeah*, one of those great house-boats that turn the river into an international road, flying the flags of their temporary owners beside the huge triangular sails that in the winding channel often seem to be moving across a meadow or running into a village. Sometimes, in the season, a hundred sails may be in sight together, such yachts contrasting with clumsier, high-pooped trading craft, piled with boxes and bales and black and yellow passengers. The prevalent north wind helps their voyage up stream; when the wind fails the sturdy Nubian boatmen take to poling or tracking; then on the easy descent long sweeps serve rather for steering than rowing. The difficult navigation is directed by experienced pilots, who come to know every turn of the river and to guess its shifting shoals from the colour of the water; and the crews are cheered to their hard work by skirling and thumping music and by

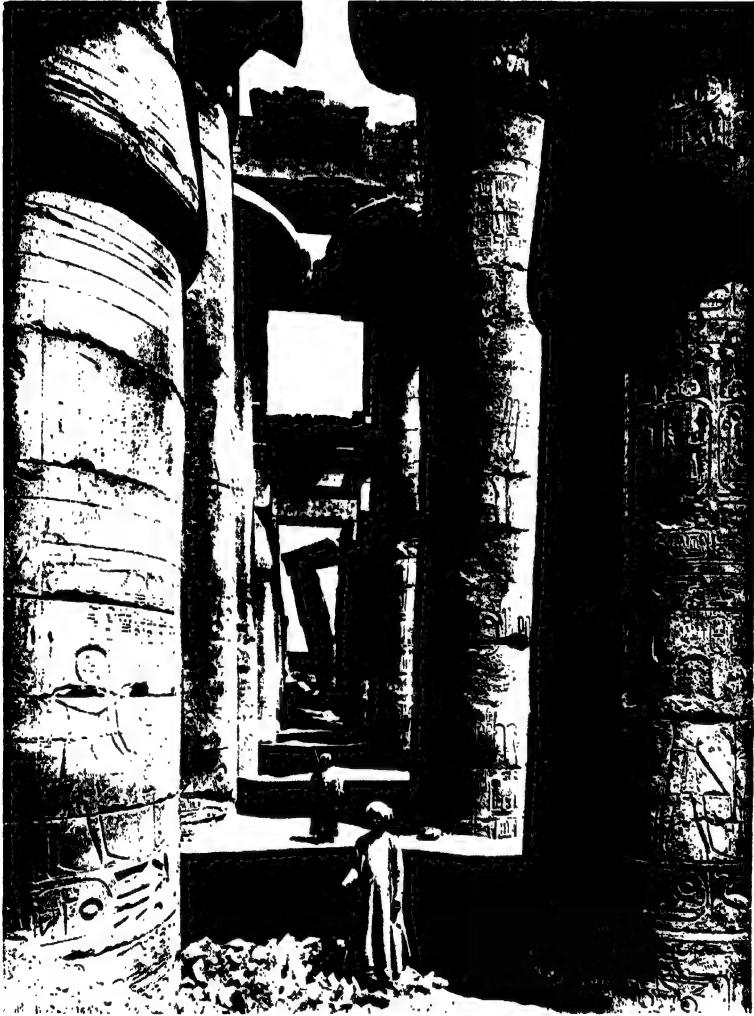
their own nasal chants, to our ears as melodious as the "voice of a camel crossed on a bagpipe".

The lazy pleasure of this voyage has been often described, where before the traveller's eyes the life and scenery of Egypt are unrolled like a panorama, edged by two ranges of limestone heights, the walls of the desert table-land, that now close in and now open out the cultivated flat, here and there drawing so near as to oust the terraces of black earth and hang in bluffs over the river.[1] The bending and undermining Nile presses rather on its right bank, wearing away the land below the cliffs, so that this side is oftener bare and bold, while on the west bank lies the wider stretch of fertile ground, with its towns strung together by the railway, and its frequent mud villages, "like the marks of a soiled foot on a rich carpet". This strip is also watered by the so-called Joseph's Canal, running for a long way parallel to the Nile, before it bends into the Fayoum. At many points one will be tempted to land for a visit to those tombs, temples, and monuments that stud the banks for hundreds of miles, interspersed between the minarets of towns, the tall chimneys of sugar-factories, and decrepit Coptic convents, whose ignorant monks, till forbidden thus to scandalize tourists, would swim out stark naked to beg from passing dahabeahs. Where other signs of life fail, the river swarms with birds; herons standing sleepy sentry on one leg, pelicans and cormorants in regiments on the sand-banks of the shifting channel, kingfishers and hoopoes unscared by the familiar boats, cranes soaring before the scarred and pitted cliffs that offer so many nests among empty tombs, vultures, hawks, and geese breaking the deep blue of the sky overhead.

As we go farther south the belt of green land begins to narrow, and the skin of its statuesque tillers grows perceptibly darker. New forms of life meet the stranger's observant eye. He may at length get the chance of a shot at a crocodile basking on the mud, though these creatures seem gradually disappearing from below the Cataracts. Among the date groves may be seen the bifurcated branches of the doum palm, whose fruit is eaten with a taste as of stale gingerbread made from saw-dust. In this warmer region we still find wonderful remains of past civilization. Above the considerable town Minieh, on the east side, are the painted rock tombs of Beni Hassan, where a vast cemetery has recently been opened, containing models of boats, furniture, &c., that throw light on the burial customs of thousands of years ago; then come the ruins of Antinoe, renamed after Hadrian's favourite Antinous, and those of Tel-el-Amarna, where a great king founded a new capital and worship. The chief town of Upper Egypt is Assiout, on the west bank, picturesquely placed on a spur of the limestone

[1] "Over the green rim rise groves of palms, the silhouette of a man with a mattock, of a woman striding erect beneath her water-jar, of a fat, turbaned sheikh on a donkey. Now we are swinging across from under the bluffs past an eyot of yellow sand towards the fertile side; already the navigable channel is narrow and devious, even at this season, and the long-gowned pilot on the bridge seldom has his hand off the wheel. Now the solitary palms thicken into groves, with a clump or two of denser acacias: here is a village. Mud huts pierced by loop-hole windows, rush firewood stacked on the roofs, black veils carrying water, young boys, half blue shirt, half brown nakedness, paddling in the river. Rural Egypt at kodak range—and you sitting in a long chair to look at it. . . . Through all its twists and changes the Nile never loses its character of the ancient begetter of life. The bordering hills, the green clover, the mud-huts, the black yashmaks, and the blue galabeahs—they are all the setting and the fruit and the children of the Nile. Steel-blue in the sunshine, his waters are coffee-brown in the shade—that is the off-scouring of the Abyssinian mountains, the Egypt-making mud. You take him in your bath of a morning; he is vestry-carts to look at, but velvet to wallow in. And now we are plugging past a twenty-foot river-bank, semaphored with miles of water-hoists. At the bottom a man pulls down the cross-bar till the straw-plaited bucket dips in the river; the weight at the other end of the beam pulls it up, and he empties it into a mud hollow six feet up the bank. Down dips another calabash to meet it, and lifts it to the next pool. Then down dips a third, and the fertilizer is at the top of the bank swishing away through the ditches on to the fields.' —G. W. Steevens' *Egypt in 1898*.

heights behind, that are honeycombed with rock tombs of its older inhabitants, when it was known as the "Wolf City". Here the river, half a mile broad, is now bridled by the second great dam, keeping up a reservoir which will double the fertility of its banks. Assiout, with over 30,000 people and a fame for pottery, was for a time the terminus of the Nile railway, that, some way above, crosses to the east bank, when the prolonged oasis of the west begins to shrink.

Photo. Photochrom Co., Ltd.

A Colonnade of the Great Temple, Karnak

The largest town on the east side is Akhmin, above which, on the same bank, near a bend of the Nile, is Keneh, a town notable as starting-point of a caravan route to the port of Kosseir, on the Red Sea; but the Suez Canal has now diverted much of this desert trade. On the other side, what seems the cradle of Egyptian history is visited at Abydos, where great explorations are now going on about the ancient temple, containing a roll of seventy-six kings who reigned before Seti, father of Ramses; then there comes the well-preserved temple of Dendera, restored by Cleopatra and the Roman emperors. But we must not be

drawn into a catalogue of these relics of Egypt's bygone greatness. Let us pass on at once to Thebes, whose ruins are judged the most wonderful in the world.

Luxor is the modern place on the east bank, with new hotels offering to European invalids a sunny winter retreat, where a shower of rain may fall once in a generation or so. On the plain for which the heights here open out, was the site of the "hundred-gated Thebes", Egypt's most famous capital, four thousand years ago a forest of magnificent shrines, many of which still stand desolate, after serving, in their decay, as early Christian churches. There are two on the river-bank, whose columns, unless mined away by the annual floods, may outlast the little English church lately erected in the grounds of an hotel. From Luxor an avenue of ram's-headed stone monsters, hundreds of them, half-buried in the sand, leads to what seems a ruined city of gods, a dismantled fortress of arches, columns, obelisks, towers, and walls, where black goats stray among the temples of Karnak, so built, it appears, that the sun might rise full into their entrance on one day of the year, when also they caught the star of their protecting deity. The Great Temple, with its Hall of Columns, and its sculptured scenes from Egyptian history, is held the noblest monument of the Nile.[1] One of the obelisks standing here, 100 feet high, is the tallest known. But words and space fail us to describe all those fascinating remains, the examination of which may employ a whole winter's leisure. On the opposite bank are other gigantic temples and vast subterranean palaces hewn out as royal sepulchres, from which have been taken the well-preserved bodies of Seti, Ramses, and many a dimly famous king, laid to rest among sculptures, paintings, and hieroglyphic inscriptions that, when lit up, are found to have preserved their form and colour through ages of dry darkness. To have seen the tombs of Thebes, says Dean Stanley, is to have seen the Egyptians as they lived and moved before the eyes of Moses, and their religion at its most solemn moments. And here, their feet washed by the Nile's flood, are the two colossal sitting statues of the same monarch, one of them celebrated under the name of Memnon, by the legend that it used to give forth a sound when touched by the rising and the setting sun.

Above Luxor more ruins succeed each other, the most notable perhaps at, or rather under, the modern town Esna; at El Kab, at Edfou, and at Kom Ombo; and even far out in the bordering desert that amazing past has left remains among

[1] "It is the astonishing successful combination of all the widely different architectural effects which are severally produced by number, by size, by proportion, by disposition, by the imperious influence of mass, and the winning appeal of perspective—it is the combination of these into a phalanx of forces to be launched irresistibly against the senses and the soul of the beholder, that make the great temple what it is. Those Atlantean columns, which were built, surely, to uphold the heavens themselves, and which seem to bear up their enormous surmounting monoliths as a giant would lift a child, have no suggestion of unwieldiness in their colossal size, leave no sense of excess in their multitudinous number. The calyx-capital into which each column blossoms would take ten men to span its monstrous girth; yet it opens out against the blue Egyptian sky above its roofless head as lightly as if it were the finest Gothic tracery above an English cathedral nave. Everywhere the feeling of absolute fitness, of perfect proportion, redeems this majestic hall from the offence of mere Brobdingnagerie; and whether the eye dwells upon the parts or sweeps the whole whether it travels through the endless alleys of this forest of stone, and rests by turns upon base and shaft and flower-like capital of its component columns, or pauses to peruse walls deep-graven with colossal gods and kings, and still glowing here and there with the undying colours of 4000 years, the artistic taste is alike satisfied. So admirable, indeed, are the proportions of the whole that the stupendous bulk of its constituent parts is hardly realized. Derangement of their symmetry seems necessary to enable one to measure it in its full awfulness, as we do here, where one of these gigantic pillars has fallen, and bows its hundreds of tons of weight and the superincumbent burden of its huge plinth, dislocated and askew, towards one of its fellows. The cause of this portentous displacement no man knows; but the vague tradition that ascribes it to the conqueror Cambyses may be safely dismissed. No mortal hands, relying solely on the strength of human muscles and the only known forces of an age that knew not of gunpowder, could ever have done the work of inchoate destruction which is above our heads. Nothing short of an earthquake could have thrust one of those tremendous plinths into the position of that overhanging horror."—H. D. Traill's *From Cairo to the Soudan Frontier*. (Since Mr. Traill's visit, several other columns have been undermined by the river floods.)

which Egyptologists find still a harvest of instruction after long plundering and defacement by ignorant Arabs. At Salsilis, above Edfou, great sandstone quarries mark what was once a natural dam, long worn away by the river. Then nearly 600 miles up from Cairo is reached Assouan, the last town of Egypt proper, where the Nile's smooth reaches begin to be broken by its series of cataracts, the heights turning athwart its course to form a bar through which it must push in a resistless flood, pouring down among gigantic boulders and green islands, the largest of them the wooded Elephantine, with its destroyed temples and restored Nilometer, opposite the town.

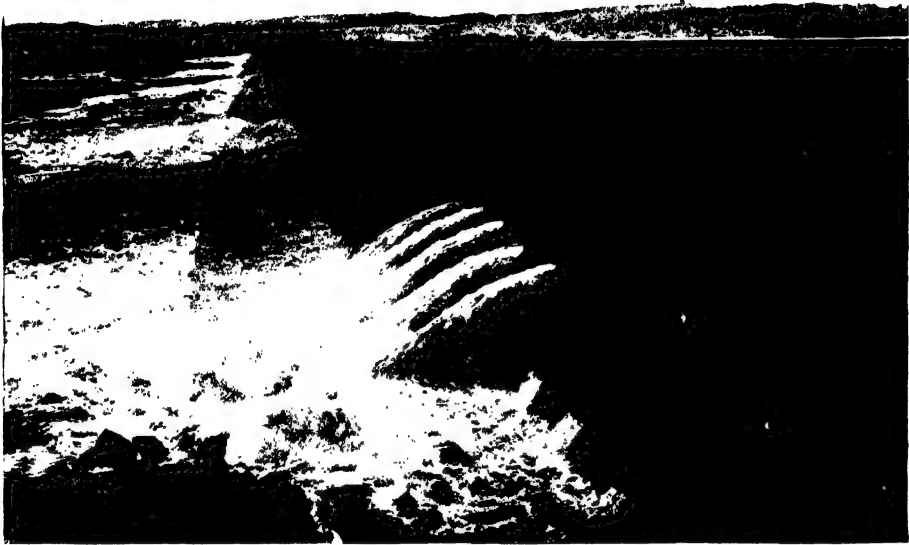



Photo. Dittrich

The Great Barrage, Assouan

Assouan, the terminus of the railway and of easy Nile travel, is an ancient place, celebrated for its granite quarries from which so many monuments have been hewn, like the great obelisk that still lies here incompleted. It is also a chief station of Nubian trade, much disturbed by the troubles of the Soudan, so that the town has for a time suffered in prosperity, becoming better known of late years as a fortified garrison. Now that peace is restored, it builds hotels to invite strangers to a sanatorium which enjoys one of the best of winter climates. Its future celebrity will be linked with the enormous barrage constructed above Assouan, by which the Nile, here rushing over its lowest cataract, is dammed up into a huge lake, while a canal, with locks, will facilitate the hitherto difficult navigation of the rapids. Unfortunately, these practical modern works, by which millions of acres are to be redeemed from waste, go to destroy a unique scene, having buried beneath a placid sheet that maze of channels foaming through huge granite boulders, their water-polished sides thickly scored over by very early

Photo. J. P. Sebah

The Island of Philae: East Side

The island is now to some extent submerged, owing to the Assouan Dam.

tourists with devices and inscriptions in different tongues.[1] This change has spoilt the foaming playground of those black-skinned men and boys who used to perform such astonishing feats of swimming here, risking their lives, as it seemed, for a small bakshish, riding astride a log down the furious currents, fearlessly shooting over the falls, and bobbing up like corks among billows that beat a poor young Englishman to death when he tried to imitate their practised gambols. At high Nile, the rough gorge was half-drowned under the rise of 30 feet; and this depth will now be more than doubled behind the dam, whose sluices may still provide the black gymnasts with watery exercise and excitement. The rocky island of Philae, a few miles above Assouan, is to some extent submerged; but an outcry on behalf of its noble ruins and ancient Nilometer so far prevailed, that the engineers undertook to strengthen the foundations of the temples, amid this beneficent inundation, which makes the First Cataract a name of the past.[2] Below, barrages have since been formed at Esna and at Assiout.

[1] In view of the disappearance of this remarkable scene, Miss A. B. Edwards's description has a special interest. "The Nile here widens to a lake. Of the islands, which it would hardly be an exaggeration to describe as some hundreds in number, no two are alike. Some are piled up like the rocks at the Land's End in Cornwall, block upon block, column upon column, tower upon tower, as if reared by the hand of man. Some are green with grass; some golden with slopes of drifted sand; some planted with rows of blossoming lupins, purple and white. Others again are mere cairns of loose blocks, with here and there a perilously-balanced top-boulder. On one, a singular upright monolith, like a menhir, stands conspicuous, as if placed there to commemorate a date, or to point the way to Philae. Another mass rises out of the water, squared and buttressed, in the likeness of a fort. A third, humped and shining like the wet body of some amphibious beast, lifts what seems to be a horned head above the surface of the rapids. All these blocks and boulders and fantastic rocks are granite; some red, some purple, some black. Their forms are rounded by the friction of ages. Those nearest the brink reflect the sky like mirrors of burnished steel. Royal ovals and hieroglyphed inscriptions, fresh as of yesterday's cutting, start out here and there from those glittering surfaces with startling distinctness. A few of the larger islands are crowned with clumps of palms; and one, the loveliest of any, is completely embowered in gum-trees and acacias, dôm and date palms, and feathery tamarisks, all festooned together under a hanging canopy of yellow-blossomed creepers."

[2] The benefit of this dam, indeed, has been already called in question by scientific Cassandras, who fear that it may have the effect of holding back too much of the thick mud that enriched the Nile water, now to be washed more widely over reclaimed fields.

Philae is often called the most beautiful spot in Egypt—one writer goes so far as to say its only beautiful spot—and our account may well end with a picture of it from Mr. C. D. Warner's *Mummies and Moslems*, one of the most readable among the many books of Egyptian travel.

"Whatever was harsh in the granite ledges, or too sharp in the granite walls, whatever is repellent in the memory concerning the uses of these temples of a monstrous theogony, all is softened now by time, all asperities are worn away; nature and art grow lovely together in a gentle decay, sunk in a repose too beautiful to be sad. Nowhere else in Egypt has the grim mystery of the Egyptians' *cultus* softened into so harmless a memory. The oval island contains perhaps a hundred acres. It is a rock, with only a patch or two of green, and a few scattered palms, just enough to give it a lonely, poetic, and not a fruitful aspect, and, as has been said, is walled all round from the water's edge. Covered with ruins, the principal are those of the temple of Isis. Beginning at the southern end of the island, where a flight of steps led up to it, it stretches along, with a curved and broadening colonnade, giant pylons, great courts, and covered temples. It is impossible to imagine a structure, or series of structures, more irregular in the lines or capricious in the forms. The architects gave free play to their fancy, and we find here the fertility and variety, if not the grotesqueness of imagination of the mediæval cathedral-builders. The capitals of the columns of the colonnade are sculptured in rich variety; the walls of the west cloister are covered with fine carvings, the colour on them still fresh and delicate; and the ornamental designs are as beautiful and artistic as the finest Greek work, which some of it suggests; as rich as the most lovely Moorish patterns, many of which seem to have been copied from these living creations—diamond-work, birds, exquisite medallions of flowers, and sphinxes."

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## NUBIA AND THE UPPER NILE

Assouan used to be held the end of Egypt; but of late years the Khedive's frontier has been advanced to Wady Halfa at the Second Cataract, 200 miles higher up. South of this, from 22° to 10° above the equator, extend the Nubian and Soudan provinces, reclaimed from the sudden overwhelming of Mahdism to be now ruled jointly by Britain and Egypt, a "Condominium" that will probably hold together as long as Egypt has sense to recognize the predominant partner in the arrangement. This makes a territory of at least 900,000 square miles, with the Nile for its backbone, and as yet vaguely-determined boundaries to the west, if on the east some line has been settled on to mark off Italian and Abyssinian ground. At all times the definition of Nubia appears somewhat unfixed, like its relations with Egypt; and a new element of confusion is added in our newspaper use of the word Soudan, "Land of the Blacks", that properly applies to a belt, several hundred miles wide, stretching across the country from Abyssinia to the Gulf of Guinea. The northern part of Nubia has long been more or less closely dependent on Egypt, which, in the nineteenth century, extended its dominions up the Nile to the equatorial regions. Then in 1882 came the revolt of the Mahdi and his fanatical bands, who terrorized over the country down to Wady Halfa. After our vain attempt to save Gordon at Khartoum, we retired from the

Soudan, till the devastation and turbulence on the Upper Nile became felt as a serious danger to Egypt's reviving prosperity, and led to a reconquest in which savage nature rather than man was the most formidable enemy.

The First Cataract is the natural gate of Nubia. That chain of granite rocks across the Nile at Assouan marks a new stage of its course, and beyond we come into a different country. Forty miles up, through the winding gorge at Kalabsheh, we cross the Tropic of Cancer, the sun making himself felt more fierce by day, and all the more keen comes the chill of the starry night. The air is clearer and purer, where even dew is unknown, but at times the blue sky may be veiled by a gray fog or a blinding storm of sand. The banks through which the river takes its fretted way are wilder and barer, often pressing upon it in rocky cliffs that give no room for culture, so that only here and there may come a few date-trees or a patch of durra kept green by water-wheels; sometimes, indeed, the Nubian peasant must swim out to plant a precarious crop on an islet of mud left bare by the subsiding current. The patient working of *shadoufs* becomes less common; the inhabitant is taxed by his *sakieh* and his date-palms. And where the banks recede to leave an oasis edge of a mile or so, often the homes and fields of the villagers have been ruined by ruthless Dervish bands, so that a jungle of weeds has sprung up among thorny trees growing wild and beds of hardy willows. Again, the river is bordered by naked desert, far across which rise the sharp peaks that have stood as model for the Pharaohs' pyramids. "In Egypt, the valley is often so wide that one forgets the stony waste beyond the corn-lands. But in Nubia, the desert is ever present. The barren mountains press upon our path, showering down avalanches of granite on one side and torrents of yellow sand on the other."

Animal life is rarer on the Middle Nile, where even the fleas and other insect pests of Egypt disappear, to the joy of travellers, who only now and then catch sight of a basking crocodile, a bounding gazelle, a timid desert-hare, or a hardly-visible chameleon shifting its hue with the branch or soil on to which it moves, and feeding on insects so small that it is said to live on air. A flight of birds are themselves likely to be passing foreigners. The very river here, it has been said, looks like a passenger, hurrying on to more fruitful ground. Inhabitants, too, are sparse in this poor country, made poorer by its oppressors, whose whole population may be a million or so. One may sail for miles up the river and hardly see a miserable straw hut, still seldomer a group of cube-shaped mud dwellings. The native stock is now more distinctly negroid, Ethiopian blood crossed with Egyptian, and mingled with that of the Arabs, who here play much the same dominant part as the Turks in Egypt. The typical Nubian, so often seen down the river as boatman or servant, is sturdy, cheerful, and spirited compared with the fellah, more willing to work and less ready to beg, nor so submissive under the stick of a master. His Moslem faith is little more than skin deep; and his women are not over-shy about exposing their features, often handsome in their way, though spoiled to a European eye—and nose—by the savage style in which they tattoo and dye themselves, and plait their hair into a mop plentifully besmeared with fat, or with the castor-oil that is one of the country's products. The everyday dress of both sexes is light and airy, supplemented on holiday occasions by shawls, blue or white robes, and, in the case of the women, by a profusion of bangles and gewgaws. The children go naked, except for a fringed leather apron worn by the girls. These black imps look hardy and

merry, unlike the sedate and serious youngsters of Egypt. Their favourite playground is the river, in whose swirling stream they sport like otters, learning betimes, instead of more dusty schooling, a fearless familiarity with water that trains them as excellent boatmen. One of Nubia's chief exports is serviceable thews and sinews; it has also excellent dates, gum, henna, and other growths such as we have seen in Arabia.

The scenery of Nubia is less monotonous than that of the Lower Nile; and all the brighter seem those thin belts of green and jungly islands between the glowing, smooth-worn walls of granite or sandstone cliff, and the fields of beans

Photo. J. P. Sebah

Natives of Nubia: Women and Children

or lentils in the opening of some side gorge, its bed soon choked by rocks and sand. Still, in this stony solitude, the bank is dotted with ruined monuments, hardly to be distinguished from the broken crests that simulate the work of human hands. The most striking remains of ancient conquerors are the temples at Abu Simbel, which Ramses the Great built to be forgotten for ages, filled up by sand till they were discovered by Belzoni nearly a century ago. Mr. J. Ward (*Pyramids and Progress*) styles the chief temple here the greatest of all Egyptian monuments, its façade 100 feet in height and width. "Four gigantic figures of the great king, all originally exactly alike, are seated on thrones forming the front. The whole is hewn out of the solid rock, each figure being nearly 70 feet high. Three of them are quite perfect; the head of one has tumbled into the sand below its feet. In the centre is a lofty door leading into the temple and its chambers, which extend 200 feet into the sandstone cliff. The whole temple, inside and outside, is covered with inscriptions and pictures describing the life

Abu Simbel: the Temple Front

Photo. J. P. Sebah

and conquests of Ramses II." Some of the Nubian temples are now further adorned with the names of Mr. T. Atkins and his comrades, Pat and Sandy, on their way to Khartoum.

Abu Simbel is 40 miles below Wady Halfa, a place at the foot of the Second Cataract, much enlarged into a military station, and neighboured by the brand-new town of Tewfikiyeh, that sprang up when this was the advance post of Egypt against Mahdism. So far navigation is comparatively easy; but difficulties have begun a hundred miles back, where the Nile makes a great bend at the desolate heights above Korosko, the chief town of Lower Nubia. In its first winding reach here the wilful river turns south-east, and as the prevalent wind is north-west, sailing craft often come to a stick, sand-bars and rocks making towing impracticable; and a vessel without steam is lucky to double the point in two days, a few miles of exciting navigation, through what seems a choppy sea when the wind and the current conflict.

This bend is only the beginning of a great vagary which the Nile makes on the west side of its normal course, soon broken also by the longest series of cataracts. So at Korosko goes off a land-route cutting across the Nubian desert, for more than 200 miles, to regain the river at Abu Hamed, passing by Murat Wells, the remains of an oasis, whence radiate tracks to Suakim and other Red Sea ports. These desert roads have fallen much out of use during the troubles of the Soudan; and the railway from Wady Halfa to Khartoum, that takes a cut across the river loop, will not help to restore their traffic. The savage landscape seen from the black peaks of Korosko hardly invites acquaintance, a country of rocky volcanic hills and sandy plain, where nothing grows but dry

stalks, ready to snap at a touch, and nothing lives but wan or spotted creatures, that cheat one another's enmity by imitating the natural colourlessness of the ground, on which the sun paints with his shimmering beams the weirdly picturesque illusions of the mirage. "All day long", remembers Mr. E. F. Knight, "we rode across an enchanted land, wherein we could not be certain that anything was real but the sand immediately beneath us. On the horizon, extended ranges of pleasant hills from which rivers flowed in broad belts of rippling blue. We saw lakes of breaking waves, on whose shores palms and long grasses bent quivering beneath a strong wind, whose refreshing breath was unfelt by

Photo. Frith & Co., Ltd.

The Second Cataract of the Nile

us; for the air was quite still this day, and the breeze was but a mockery like the water. Often, too, a long sea horizon stretched before us. We seemed to be descending to a wild coast, with deep rock-enclosed fiords, sandy dunes, far-jutting promontories; while many islets were scattered over the calm sea." When the heights do catch a rain-cloud, as happens now and then, the rain is apt to come down in a sudden storm, turning the dust into mud, the dry gorges into torrents, and filling the wells without which this desert would be impassable. A whole black regiment, rashly led into it, once perished of thirst.

Full of obstacles as it is, and 600 miles longer than the desert land-route, the passage of the Nile loop does not dismay hardy Nubian crews. The Second and the Third Cataracts, that bring holiday travellers to a stop, form together some hundred miles of rapids, where the river struggles in tortuous channels among innumerable islands and reefs of black rock, its course a gigantic reproduction of our mountain streams. But this forbidding water has been navigated in specially-built boats, upwards at middle and low water, downwards when the

current was fuller, the latter voyage being the more dangerous if less laborious; and the river may be seen strewn with wrecks, as the desert tracks with the bones of men and camels.[1] Perhaps such costly navigation must soon be spoken of in the past tense, as a short railway line runs up the river from Wady Halfa to Karma above the Third Cataract.

The "Belly of Rocks" above Wady Halfa makes one of the most wildly savage scenes in Nubia. Between the Second and Third Cataracts comes some break in the rocky nakedness of the land; then above the latter the river runs between fields and date-groves, which in that troubled time, when the animals to work the water-wheels were slaughtered or driven off by the Mahdi's myrmidons, began to degenerate into the native growth of thorny scrub that lent each night a fortification to our advancing camps. In this stretch are several towns, the best known of them Dongola, ruined under the Mahdi, after it had taken away the name and the fame of Old Dongola, higher up, once the capital of a Christian state. Above Old Dongola, the Nile's S-like loop brings its course from a north-easterly direction. Here is the Fourth Cataract, the longest and most difficult stretch of all these rapids, near which the pyramid of Merowe shows how the Pharaohs' power once extended so far. At Abu Hamed ends this great bend, the river above having its normal flow south to north.

[1] Brehm, the German naturalist, gives us a spirited account of such an adventurous feat, for which several craft start together, ready to help each other in case of accident. Pushing up stream under full sail, the leading boat will soon be caught in a whirlpool that spins it out of the arduous course, steered towards an opening in the rapids. Overboard go one or two men, swimming with a rope to some projecting rock from which they can haul the boat upwards. Crash! it has struck on a hidden reef with such violence that the steersman is flung into the water. One of his comrades throws him a rope and a bladder, by help of which he soon scrambles on board again; another has sprung to the rudder; the rest rush below to plug up the leak with their shirts or whatever comes to hand. Once more the vessel moves on, rocking, creaking, groaning, till it has passed the whirling waves and is safely moored to a rock. Now a rope is floated down to the next craft to draw it up; this in turn helps the one behind, and so till, by hauling, sailing, and swimming, the whole fleet has passed the difficult place.

Still more exciting is the descent of the rapids, in which one boat out of ten will probably be dashed to pieces. As devout preparation, the crews are unusually careful about their prayers, if possible seeking the favour of heaven at the tomb of some holy man, and not neglecting a heathen offering of dates thrown into the fearsome waves. The most experienced *reis* or skipper leads the way, loudly encouraging and abusing his men as they tug at the oars, their bare bodies glistening with oil and sweat, ready at every moment to find themselves struggling for life in the water. "Bend to your oars; work, work, my sons: show your strength, ye children and grandchildren of heroes; display your prowess, ye brave; exert your strength, ye giants, do honour to the prophet, all ye faithful! Oh, for the scented damsels of Dongola! Oh, for the delights of Cairo; all shall be yours! Larboard, I say, ye dogs, ye children of dogs, ye grandchildren and great-grandchildren, and litter of dogs, ye Christians, ye heathen, ye Jews, ye Kaffirs, ye fire-worshippers. Ah! ye rascals, ye swindlers, ye thieves, ye villains, ye vagabonds, do you call this rowing? First oar, starboard! Are there women hanging about you? Third oar, larboard! throw overboard the weaklings who are misleading you! That's right, well done; bravo, ye strong, supple, clever youth; God bless you, brave fellows, and give your fathers joy and your children His blessing! Better, better, better yet, ye cowards, ye strengthless, ye sapless, ye miserable, ye pitiable- -Allah curse you all in His righteous wrath, ye—ye—help us, help us, O Mohammed!" But soon his voice is drowned in the roar of the breakers that foam across the deck, while the rocks seem to whirl round on either side of the helpless craft, as it is swiftly dashed onwards towards the destruction that seems to threaten it at every moment. The first perilous reef is behind them almost before the scared men have time to realize their danger. But two of the oars have been shivered like glass, and the crippled boat sweeps helplessly towards a more formidable cataract. A cry of terror rises; at a sign from the *reis*, standing at the bow with trembling knees, all throw themselves flat on the deck; there is a deafening crash and an overwhelming rush of hissing, gurgling waves, then the boat gives a leap upward: they have passed the cataract and escaped the jaws of death!

The boat following is not so lucky. A sudden shock has thrown down all its crew but one, hurled high through the air into the river. He seems lost, buried in the raging depths; but no! while his comrades wring their hands in dismay, the bold swimmer comes up in the middle of the foaming whirlpool, and as a third boat shoots past, he catches one of her oars to swing himself cleverly on board. His boat is stuck fast on a rock, from which the men make beseeching gestures to those that follow. A hand raised to heaven is the only answer. No human help can be given here; but the stream itself may undo the mischief it has done. The wrecked vessel swings, pitches, plunges head and stern in the water, as it is set free again and borne on by the surging current. Some of the crew row, others bale, others hammer and caulk at their broken craft. Half-full of water, they contrive to bring her on shore to be emptied of her cargo; but part of this, consisting of gum-arabic, is spoilt, and the owner, a poor merchant, tears his beard, moaning, weeping, and cursing two women passengers who have brought ill-luck upon him, as they did on the forefather of man in paradise. To-morrow, repaired and reloaded, she can drift on with the rest to take her chance among the risks of the next cataract.

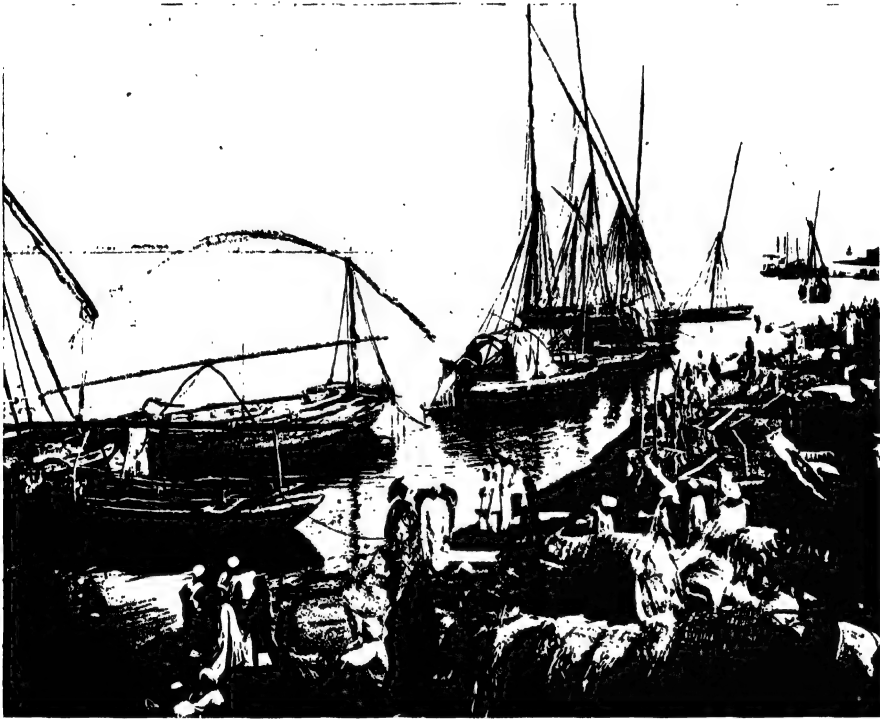
In the next reach occurs the Fifth Cataract, some way below Berber, another town ruined by the Dervishes, rebuilt again and repopulated as a noted trading centre. Old caravan routes hence to the Red Sea have now been superseded by a branch of the railway to Suakim and its new harbour Port Sudan, held as an Anglo-Egyptian garrison. Above Berber, 150 miles from Abu Hamed, we meet a new feature: the great stream is joined by its lowest tributary, the Atbara, or Black Nile, flowing down from the Abyssinian Mountains, in early summer a chain of muddy pools, where hippopotamuses, crocodiles, and huge turtles herd together in strange company, then swollen by tropical rains to a rushing flood of dark water; its green banks, too, blighted for a time by the

The Market, Omdurman

Photo. M. Venetis, Khartoum

tyranny of Mahdism. When the town of Shendy and the Sixth Cataract are passed, the main stream of the White Nile is joined by its great Abyssinian affluent, the Blue Nile, which has a north-westerly course of 850 miles from Lake Tsana in Abyssinia. The tint of the water under certain lights may have suggested these names; but reddish brown rather is the colour of the Abyssinian mountain floods that come swirling down, turbid with silt, to revive the well-worked soil of Egypt. The White Nile, as we now know, is regularly supplied from the great Equatorial Lakes; but its stream of clearer water fails to fill the great bed throughout the year; so in spring the river goes on falling till its current takes a sickly greenish hue, its creeks and back-waters drying up into gaping mud and foul scum till the welcome coming of the annual spate that will spread joy and weal thousands of miles below.

On the point between the confluence of the White and the Blue Nile stands

Khartoum, a name that for us Britons has proud as well as painful memories. This is a great trading centre, which during the Egyptian occupation had grown to have 60,000 inhabitants of many races, from naked negroes to pushing Greek merchants. It was deserted by the Mahdi, who founded a new city, Omdurman, on the opposite bank, forcing together there a great population of soldiers, slaves, and dependants, fed by raids upon the provinces around.[1] After the reconquest, Khartoum was restored as capital of the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan. Though so few years have passed since we became masters here, the city has already recovered much of its old prosperity, which may be expected to increase as the country quiets down under honest and efficient government. The two towns, containing between them some 100,000 people, are now joined by a fine bridge; and another is carrying the railway across from a northern suburb. The rebuilt Khartoum is the best quarter. There is now an hotel here as Ultima Thule of Cook's tourists, who once a week can reach Khartoum from Wady Halfa in a day and a half's dusty travel by the Soudan railway, that one day may go on to the Cape, scaring rhinoceroses, lions, and giraffes in their haunts, amazing Arabs, negroes, and Kafirs by turns as it carries passengers from one end of Africa to the other. The railway did not at first reach the town, having its terminus at Halfaya, on the right bank of the Blue Nile, which is also the central station of the telegraph wires that are being extended over the Eastern

[1] The story of the Mahdi's domination, brought near to us by newspaper correspondence and the reports of his European captives, shows as through a telescope how similar movements have risen and grown, when not checked, as in his case, by the resources of science. This impostor, son of a poor boat-builder in the Dongola district, had a youth of probably genuine religious enthusiasm, alloyed with cunning; then prospering on a reputation for holiness, he went on to proclaim himself a Mahdi or Prophet, such as has once and again come to fulfil the Moslem faith. Taking advantage of Egypt's weakness in 1881, he stirred up a revolt between the White and the Blue Nile; and the people, discontented under their Egyptian masters, rallied round his pretensions, the more readily when these seemed to be accredited by the appearance of a brilliant comet, portending indeed a change that was to ruin the country for half a generation. The small and scattered Egyptian garrisons were overcome; Hicks Pasha's army of timid fellahin made itself a target for slaughter; and the Mahdi became master of almost all the Nubian Soudan, except in the far south, where Emin Pasha, till relieved by Stanley, was cut off with a rabble of unruly soldiers. Khartoum also held out for a time under the gallant Gordon, who had vainly hoped by his personal influence to stem the tide of rebellion. We can still remember the wrath and the grief of England, when in 1885 the city fell, just two days before our troops appeared to its belated rescue. Our army withdrew; and Egypt for a time gave up her Soudan provinces to the usurper, who, razing Khartoum after he had drenched it in blood, established his capital at Omdurman.

Under the temptations of despotism, this bugbear potentate soon degenerated from any real religious character. As the country grew lean under his misrule, he literally waxed fat, giving himself up to the sensualism that so easily mingles with Moslem zeal. Six months after Gordon's fate, the pinchbeck Mohamed died, according to his captive Slatin Pasha, of typhus fever, which was making terrible ravages in his dominions, or of poison, as one story goes. He had appointed as his colleague and successor, Abdullah, an illiterate Arab of the cattle-owning people known as the Baggaras, who were the domineering Mohawks of that region. This "Kalifa", in favour of whom the original prophet's own relations were set aside, inherited the prestige and the vices of his predecessors, by whose tomb at Omdurman he tried to replace Mecca as a centre of devotion, but that was his chief contribution to the mushroom faith, though he showed himself five times a day in his new mosque, acting as high-priest at intervals of toying with his hundreds of wives. Cunning, suspicious, and ignorant, he ruled by terror, without consideration for any interests but his own. Having no gut for leading his army of 100,000 men, he deputed its command to emirs, of whom Osman Digna most distinguished himself, and for a time their power presumed not only to defy Egypt, but to make war on Abyssinia, and to come into collision with the Italians towards the Red Sea. Then the ill-built structure began to crumble. Famine and disease spread through the ruined country, and the Nile was laden with emaciated corpses. The Egyptian regiments, steeled by English officers, were found able to withstand the fierce Dervishes, as those fanatical warriors were called; and the Khedive gradually won back his authority up the Nile, as the cruelty of the tyrant went on disgusting the Soudanese tribes, plundered and enslaved at the hands of the Baggaras, who repaid their kinsman's special favour by remaining loyal to him when the rest of his subjects were held together by mere dread, and took every chance of falling away. The proud and cruel Baggaras for a time pushed their ravages unchecked, desolating the country far and wide, till it is believed that the majority of its inhabitants had perished in a few years. When in 1896 Kitchener's first expedition advanced to Dongola, the troops were received as deliverers. In 1898 the Sirdar returned with a mixed British and Egyptian army, unrolling a railway as it advanced; then after defeating the Dervishes on the Atbara, with one more blow, at Omdurman, it crushed the rule of the Kalifa. His army fought most desperately, but was mown down by deadly firearms; and more than a myriad of corpses made the long-delayed hecatomb to Gordon's manes. The leader fled to the south, where next year he was followed up and slain

Soudan. At Khartoum itself, handsome public buildings have soon arisen up among fine foliage which the Mahdists did not destroy. One of its most hopeful new institutions is the Gordon Memorial College, designed to be to the Soudan such an elevating influence as Gordon would have desired for his best monument. His statue, on camel-back, stands in the market-place.

Kassala, on a tributary of the Atbara, near the Abyssinian frontier, is perhaps, after Khartoum, the best known town in the Soudan, where most towns and trading-stations were ruined by the Baggaras. Kassala had the fortune to be rescued by the Italians, who, on the contraction of their own dominion here, gave it up to Britain and Egypt. The Mesopotamia between the White and the Blue Niles, known sometimes as the Isle of Meroe, is naturally the richest part of Nubia, and shows remains of old civilization associated with the name of Queen Candace. The tongue of land at the confluence expands into the wide alluvial plain of Senaar, watered by other Abyssinian tributaries, and growing cotton which largely supplies the rude manufactures of the region, while its thick forests appear to be rich in india-rubber, as in white and red gum, which can be exported by steamers on the Blue Nile. The chief town of the Senaar province is Wad Medani, with 20,000 inhabitants. On the other side of the White Nile lies the province of Kordofan, which, with its capital El Obeid, has been taken over by the British, and only needs a firm hand to bring it to civilization. Its soil is rather a dry upland, rising to the mountains of Darfur on the west, from which side the Nile now receives affluents, though at first in the form of struggling desert *khors*, that in dry seasons fail to reach the great river, and farther up, of trickling marshes flooded by the rains.

Peace and order have been so recently introduced here, that it is too soon to give an account of these provinces on the Upper Nile, whose bounds are hardly fixed, and most of their extent is little known unless to adventurous travellers, and to the brutal slave-hunters, whose visits might well make the inhabitants shy of strangers. It must suffice rapidly to trace the river upwards to its long mysterious source in the great equatorial reservoirs, its course no longer in thirsty deserts, but through the rank steppes and forests of the tropics, breeding the huge, ungainly forms of Central African animal life, still lingering here and there in the region of the cataracts. The baobab, the tamarind, and palms, that love both heat and moisture, now begin to be common, fed by heavy rains in spring or summer, or intermittently through the year. So swampy is much of the river-bed, that the Cape to Cairo railway seems bound to turn away from it; and in delimiting the eastern frontier an agreement has been made with Abyssinia for a right to carry the line through its territory.

We have soon left the name of Nubia behind, and are full in the Soudan, land of feeble disunited black tribes, which has long made a hunting-ground for Arab slave-catchers. That cruel trade in "black ivory" does not flourish under the Union Jack; and the real ivory, too, is dying out as the elephants have been killed off. Another product of the Soudan is ostrich feathers, brought down the Nile to Egypt, where ostrich eggs are much esteemed as ornaments, long strings of them being often hung up in the mosques and Coptic churches. The works of Sir S. Baker and travellers of the same stamp make a sportsman's mouth water by their enumeration of the big game awaiting well-equipped and fever-proof adventurers, where gums and india-rubber invite honest trade. The commonest grain appears to be *durra*, a kind of millet, from which is brewed

the thin beer called *merissa*, much drunk in the Soudan. The camel has vanished with the sandy Nubian deserts; and the people are cattle-owners, as well as agriculturists in favourable spots. It is hoped that coal may turn up in this region, some parts of which are known to possess iron and copper.

Above its confluence with the Sobat from the Abyssinian heights, whose clear and rapid volume of water might give this a claim to be the main river, the Nile has the name of the Bahr el Jebel. A little below, about 10° above the equator, was passed Fashoda, in the country of the numerous and warlike Shillook negroes, a swampy, fever-stricken spot, that at one time made a sore bone of contention between France and Britain, worthless in itself, but important as giving the holder of it the power to ruin Egypt and Nubia by playing tricks with its constant water-supply. We are now in a region of marshy lakes, where through a fertile but unhealthy country to the west, drains in the Bahr el Ghazal, its stagnant channels navigable by steamers up to Meshra er Rek. Above this lake-like confluence, the great river has made a loop of diverging channels; and it is joined by many hardly-traced streams as it flows down from the equatorial province, now a sphere of direct British influence under the name of Uganda. A serious obstacle to the navigation of the Upper Nile is the scum of floating reeds, weeds, and grass called *sudd*, gathering in such masses as to choke up the channel, bringing a steamer to a stand in the thick tangle, that must be cut away before her wheels or screw can work. Men, even elephants, can tramp across the drifting islands of sudd many feet thick, in which a vessel gets bound almost as fast as in Arctic ice; and long reaches of the river have been blocked thus for years together. This nuisance is being abated; an experiment at turning it into a valuable fuel called suddite may even make it a benefit to the country.

For hundreds of miles the Nile flows through homes of naked blacks, with superstition for religion, suspicion for politics, and groups of conical huts for towns. Often no sign of human life appears as the great river rolls on, now narrowed to a stream like the Thames, half filled in by sudd largely formed of the papyrus reed that here rises as high as a tree; then opening out in flooded lakes, where giant water-lilies may be heard crackling into flower; again almost lost among flat, rushy marshes, dotted with tall ant-hills, which seem the only dry spots in a water-logged wilderness, and on which tall, mop-headed Dinka fishermen, smeared over with ashes as armour against hosts of mosquitoes, appear perched on one leg, each like "a long black stork". Yet parts of the country are so fertile, that about the native villages *durra* is found growing twice the height of a man, with ears of grain weighing a couple of pounds. Other tribes are rich in cattle, and some were so till impoverished by the Dervish raids which ruined the Nile banks almost up to the equator.

When clear of sudd, the Nile is navigable to the abandoned mission-station Gondokoro, 5° above the equator, where comes the Uganda government's outpost, at present reached by monthly steamers in a fortnight from Khartoum; and from Lado, a little below Gondokoro, a rail is in view to the Congo State territory. Higher up, the river channel is broken by the long series of rapids in which it descends to the level of Northern Africa from the great lakes lying as high above the sea as a British mountain.

The Anglo-Egyptian Soudan is now mapped out into some dozen provinces, more or less surveyed and brought into control under British officers with native subordinates, whose work will before long give more to tell of this vast region.

# ABYSSINIA AND ITS BORDERLANDS

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The vast and vaguely-determined country which we call Abyssinia, but its own people Ethiopia, has a peculiar position in Africa by its marked physical characteristics, and in the world as an ancient independent kingdom of dark-skinned Christians. Isolated by a flood of Moslem conversion, the Abyssinian mountaineers were for long centuries almost cut off from their fellow-believers, then for centuries more their land remained mysterious to Europe, revealed only by glimpses through a haze of imagination. Here the Portuguese sought the

seat of Prester John; here Dr. Johnson laid the fabulous scene of his moral tale; here Bruce pushed discoveries which were mocked at as inventions. But for the ill-credited and imperfect reports of missionaries, and of a curious traveller now and then, little was known of Abyssinia till our own time, when it became forced into better acquaintance by collision with more than one European nation.

The name Abyssinia is said to come from an Arabic word meaning a confused medley, and this would be borne out by the varying conclusions of ethnologists as to its people's origin. We may take Professor Keane as authority

Abyssinian Priests' Dance in Front of a Church

for the population being in the main of Hamitic stock, native in this corner of Africa, while the predominant race have been modified by Semite elements. The nation itself, to its neighbours known by the name of Amhara, the central province, claims as its first king Menelik, who, to use a foreign idiom much needed in English, "should be" the son of Solomon and the Queen of Sheba; its national device is the Lion of Judah, and there are marked traces of early Jewish influence. It is more clear that the Himyarite tribes of South Arabia long ago invaded Abyssinia, and were in turn invaded by its princes. This old connection of the opposite shores of the Red Sea is attested by a Himyarite language being still the sacred script of the Abyssinian Church. The Arab infusion is naturally more distinct in the north; elsewhere a negro strain comes into play. Perhaps the original stock is best represented by the Gallas, who populate the southern plains, and are found scattered over the table-land of Abyssinia proper, here marked off by their servile state and their Moslem or heathen religion.

Whatever be their origin, the Amharic people were converted to Christianity in the fourth century, the instruments, according to legend, being two young captives, who would seem to have had an easy task. Theirs became closely allied to the Coptic Church, sharing its monophysite heresy; and the mountain mass of Abyssinia made a fortress for this religion, not only against the Mohammedan conquest, but against intercourse with other Christian churches.

When the Portuguese appeared as pioneers of Europe here, their Jesuit missionaries made some way in winning over the nation to the Latin fold; but such compliance proved only temporary, and the Abyssinian Church has since stuck to its own independence, in doctrine and discipline more nearly akin to Greek Church models, while it accepts its head from the Copts, as if modestly conscious that no native is worthy to represent the apostles. This Christianity, indeed, seems more curious than exemplary. Its disciples show little more of the Christian than a blue cord round the neck, which is their mark of baptism, and a greater or less regard for the many feasts and fasts prescribed by their church. Its belief, rather a sedative than a stimulant to the conscience, is much alloyed by barbarous superstitions, including a devout dread of the evil eye. Its bigoted priesthood are more respected than respectable, nor have its slothful monks much claim to sanctity beyond the Eastern merit of dirt. The patron saint of Abyssinia is our own St. George, who, if all stories be true, has a halo of somewhat dubious virtues. Its religious customs puzzlingly suggest a hotch-potch of influences. The priests bear as ensigns of their dignity a pastoral staff or crutch, like early Christian fathers, and a fly-flap such as is shown on Egyptian monuments; they also make much display of umbrellas, like the Buddhist bonzes. Their elaborate processional ritual has been considered of Jewish origin, as also the arrangement of the churches, which have a holiest recess containing the tables of the law in an ark; but Mr. T. Bent finds here hints of ancient Sabean sun-worship, akin to that of Baal. On high festivals is performed, with an open-air show of gorgeous vestments and umbrellas, a dance understood to represent that of David before the Ark; drumming also plays a noisy part in the national means of grace. The churches are decorated with rude paintings, where the artist works under the disadvantage of having to present all the good people full face, while the figures of evil-doers are given in profile; and it is notable that saints and martyrs are painted white, another apparent trait of self-depreciation in the dusky Ethiopian. He has to content himself with only one legal spouse, but her position is hardly higher than that of an Arab's wives; and the oriental estimate of her sex is here manifested by the fact that no women may profane the most sacred places of church or monastery.[1] The priesthood, who so learn and interpret Christianity, are only a little less ignorant than the people. There are few books in the current Amharic speech, and these little read. The monasteries have schools of a sort that turn out secretaries for the illiterate great men, who, like our Plantagenet barons, use a seal to supply their want of clerkliness. The Emperor himself, as innocent of reading and writing as Jack Cade, exercises the privilege of putting his seal

[1] "The churches in Abyssinia are all similar, so one description will suffice. They are circular buildings of stones or mud, well thatched with straw, the conical roof terminating in a wooden top generally painted red, and surmounted by an iron, brass, or wooden cross. There are generally two, or sometimes three, walls surrounding the church concentrically, and in the enclosures thus formed the people congregate, those of a certain rank being inside the church or the first enclosure, the next in importance being in the next enclosure, and so on, until the outside one contains the lowest of the populace. The priests officiate inside a square panelled room, which reaches nearly up to the roof, and takes up almost the whole of the interior of the church. This screen is lavishly painted with sacred subjects and scraps of history from the lives of the saints in, as a rule, most crude and gaudy colours, early Byzantine in style but not in date, and in each of the four sides is a door covered by a curtain. Chanting is heard from the interior, and every now and then a priest appears at one of the doors and rapidly repeats a long prayer. Occasionally a procession is formed of priests and acolytes, dressed in quaint embroidered vestments, and wearing silver or gilt crowns somewhat like the papal tiara. These move slowly about the congregation, swinging incense, and chanting to the sound of drums and a sort of two-stringed instrument. And then the chief priest or bishop carries round a silver cross which he presents to each member to be kissed. The space between the panels and the walls of the church is generally so crowded that it is impossible to obtain a clear idea of the service."—Count Gleichen's *With the Mission to Menelik.*

Menelik, Emperor of Abyssinia

to the head of a document instead of at the foot like any other "plain, honest-dealing man".

The Abyssinian Emperor, as we translate it, emulates any Christian prince in the proudness of his title, which is nothing less than *Negus Negust*—"king of kings"—representing his not always secure domination over the provincial rulers styled *Negus* or *Ras*, and their subordinates bearing titles of military rank. However ancient this empire may be, it has been by no means continuous either in authority or extent; and its dubious annals show the country almost overwhelmed now by fanatical Arabs, now by wild Gallas. A century ago what we began to know as Abyssinia was split up into Tigré in the north, Amhara in the centre, Shoa in the south, and other communities more or less turbulently independent under their own princes. This state of things was ended by the Amharic brigand chief Theodore, who succeeded, about the middle of the century, in subjugating the rival Rases and becoming recognized by European powers as monarch of Abyssinia. Ignorant insolence tempted him to defy our government by imprisoning and ill-treating several British subjects; but he found his mistake when in 1868 Lord Napier's expedition marched to his rock stronghold, Magdala, defeating his army without the loss of a man. Theodore committed suicide; his son was taken to England, where he died at school; and John, Ras of Tigré, who had assisted our forces, was allowed to proclaim himself Emperor. This prince warred successfully against his Egyptian neighbours, but in 1889 he was defeated and killed by the Mahdi's dervish horde. His supremacy had never been admitted by Menelik, king of Shoa, who now came forward as his successor, and in time mastered the anarchy into which the country had fallen. All the three chief provinces have thus taken turns in domination.

Meanwhile, strangers had settled on the outskirts of Abyssinia, fear and suspicion of whom helped Menelik to consolidate his power over the Abyssinian tribes. The Italians, full of their new national aspirations, began a colony on the Red Sea, soon pushing its limits into the mountainous inland. During the troubles between Abyssinia and Egypt they made considerable headway in this enterprise; and when Africa came to be divided by the chief European powers into "spheres of influence", Abyssinia was understood to fall to Italy's share as a protectorate. But Menelik's good-will had not been secured by his would-be patrons. The Italians had scarcely driven off the Dervishes when they found themselves drawn into a costly war with the Abyssinian potentate. After several minor combats, an Italian army of 16,000 men, rashly led into a difficult mountain country, was overwhelmed by six times their number, and routed with terrible loss at Adua, 1896. This crushing blow took away Italy's appetite for Abyssinian conquest, already denounced by a political party at home; and she has since confined her pretensions to the coast-lands of Eritrea.

Strengthened by the prestige which Italy thus lost, Menelik, now that his favour seemed worth courting, became the object of insinuating attentions on the part of England, France, and Russia, all desirous to play off upon him the friendly professions of Codlin and Short. These advances he has met in a cautious manner, showing a clear eye to his own interest. Very varying reports are current as to his character and disposition; but it may be that his dark looks are the worst of him. Behind his barbaric state he appears to exercise a shrewd care for the advance of the empire, over which he certainly has managed to confirm his authority, and is gradually forcing it upon tributary tribes to the south, while on the north he is restricted by the Nubian desert, on the west by the new Anglo-Egyptian Condominium, and on the east by a chain of European colonies along the Red sea. He rules as a complete despot, with patriarchal custom for law, and feudal vassals for officials; but he has had wisdom enough to attach to himself more than one European counsellor, and it is probable that the blind prejudices of the people are a greater hindrance to progress than any caprices of its masterful ruler. He is understood to be on no very cordial terms with the priesthood, the backbone of Ethiopian toryism; while he has risen above the national morals in prohibition of the slave-trade, still carried on surreptitiously, and of the unspeakable mutilation of a slain enemy that supplies the Ethiopian warrior with a trophy answering to the Red Indian's scalp. All the same, he has shown himself capable of relentless cruelty towards those who stand in his way, as in the case of his fat and fair queen's previous husband—her fourth—whom Menelik is said to have got rid of upon precedent in the history of his assumed ancestor, King David. A more romantic love affair in his youth was when, as prisoner to Theodore, he escaped by help of that sovereign's daughter, as has happened in tale and history to so many a captive pining in paynim dungeon. The royal couple are both reported not to want for intelligence, and for a certain dignity. Menelik plumes himself on his equality with the sovereigns of Europe, and has got the length of bestowing an Ethiopian order, an eight-pointed star with a ribbon of the national colours, red, green, and yellow, that in the form of three triangular pennons, fastened to a pole, make the standard of Abyssinia. He seems, however, to be a very homely autocrat, attending to small affairs as well as great, not above acting in person as custom-house officer when a large caravan comes to be dealt with. He is, indeed, accused of being more the man of business than becomes such a high-titled potentate, taking the trade of the country into his own hands as well as the taxes, from which latter, as usual in oriental despotisms, subordinate exactors are like to draw heavy toll on their way to the royal treasury.

The stronghold of this revived power, and of Abyssinian aloofness from neighbouring influences, is a great highland region, roughly triangular in shape, between the Red Sea and the basin of the Nile. If one could look on Abyssinia from a balloon, it would appear as a huge group of wrinkled knobs upon a table-land elevated 7000 feet or more, from which peaks topped with snow and rooted in rocky glens and gorges rise in some cases to over twice that height. On the east side the scarp of this plateau forms a steep wall along the coast plains. On the west it slopes more brokenly, or falls in terraces to the level of Nubia and the Nile Valley. On the south it sinks into the lower plateau of Galla-land, which, to the east, extends as Somali-land over the promontory

ended by Cape Guardafui, the easternmost horn of Africa. Such is the physical outline of a country which will one day be more thoroughly explored.

Though volcanic energy appears no longer active here, it has, particularly on the east side, gone to shape the wildly broken features among which lava plains, crater lakes, hot springs, and other volcanic phenomena are still evident. Deep erosion by water has hollowed out stupendous gorges and fissures, through which the heavy rains rush down in impetuous torrents, often to be dried up on their passage over the hot stony deserts below, or to lose themselves in the swamps of the coast, if not exhausted for artificial irrigation. On the west side the rivers have a fuller course, where Lake Tsana, *alias* Dembea, more than 1000 square miles in area at nearly 6000 feet above the sea, discharges the Blue Nile, which Bruce took for the main stream; and from the heights north and south of this come down the Black Nile and the Sobat, the latter sometimes called the Yellow Nile. From the Galla table-land to the south, untraced streams drain into a chain of closed salt basins, the largest of them Lake Rudolf, 260 miles long, so named in honour of the Austrian crown-prince by its discoverer, Count Teleki. Its main feeder, the Nainam or Omo, is believed to flow from the Sobat's watershed. Beyond this depression rises the mass of Central Africa.

Difference of elevation naturally gives Abyssinia a great range of temperature and variety in climate. The lowlands towards the Red Sea are hot and enervating, yet not too unhealthy, when malarious swamps be absent. The rainy season here comes in winter, but in summer on the inland plateaus, which have heavy spring rains and a later period of clouds and thunderstorms, while all the year round the sun-heat is tempered by the altitude and by cooling winds so as to induce a climate like that of south Europe. Ascending the eastern edge of the table-land in January, Mr. T. Bent found a singular change of weather. "Below was a sea of crumpled clouds extending as far as the eye could reach, out of which peered high mountain peaks like islands in a sea of cotton-wool; above us was the clearest of blue skies and a burning sun. We had literally stepped at one moment out of the winter of the coast-line into the summer of the high plateau." What he speaks of as summer is our winter, the dry weather of inland Abyssinia, when the air is clear and invigorating, like that of a fine spring, with rare touches of ice, here the pleasantest season, throughout which deep-rooted trees remain evergreen.

The productions of the country, of course, follow the same variation. On the lower slopes is found characteristically African vegetation: the aloe, the baobab, and the quolquol-tree, whose stiff branches stand up like a candelabrum, ebony-wood, and thorny acacias, with cotton, dates, tobacco, and sugar-canes among the culture. Higher up, we have the cereals and pastures of Europe, and trees growing singly or in clumps, dotted on the slopes so as often to suggest an English park, where bloom wild-roses, lilies, and jasmine, and the traveller comes upon familiar blackberries and mushrooms. A frequent feature is huge sycamores, whose thick shade makes a tent for travellers or the meeting-place of a village. The gorges may be thickly wooded; but it is in the southern part, where more rain falls, that wild and extensive forests are common. On the highest mountains, culture becomes limited by Alpine conditions to hardy grain and rough pasturage. From the southern province Kaffa, probably, we got the name of coffee, which is still largely grown here, though it now disguises itself under the pretence of coming from Mocha. Another export from this

region is the musk of the civet-cat, kept captive for its odorous secretion, that can be diluted with oil or butter to make a valuable perfume.

The remote western borders of Abyssinia supply a certain amount of gold-dust, washed out of the rivers, which, like the ivory of its elephants, is a monopoly of the Emperor. Salt is extracted in other parts, and has long circulated as a means of exchange, in the form of crystallized blocks nearly a foot long, the value varying according to the distance from the source of supply; and it ought to be depreciated through a habit the people have of licking these cumbrous counters. In some out-of-the-way districts pieces of iron may still be used as coins; and in others, as in the Soudan, strips of cotton cloth. The only money

Photo. P. Mathieu

Donkey laden with Bars of Salt, Abyssinia

that passes freely is the Austrian Maria Theresa dollars, which on both sides of the Red Sea have won the trust of the natives, and are specially coined for their benefit. Menelik has introduced a coinage of his own, but the people as yet are said to look doubtfully on it. At the capital, dollars are worth about seven to our pound, each equal to five bars of salt, and for small change cartridges are now much used, fifteen going to the dollar. This currency does not give us a very great idea of Abyssinian commerce; and indeed the Emperor's high-handed way of managing trade in his own interests has not much encouraged enterprise on the part of foreign merchants. Iron is found in many parts; copper, sulphur, and, it is said, coal, might be obtained from the mountains. Manufactures are confined to home-made cotton cloth, with some finer woven fabrics, leather coarsely decorated, common articles in iron and brass, and the silver filagree-work much used as ornaments by all classes, the wearing of gold being a privilege of the royal family. The imports most in demand are more elaborate fabrics,

hardware, glass, cutlery, matches, shoes, hats and gloves, European drinks, and, above all, firearms and ammunition, which Menelik has laid in to some purpose.

The soil of the table-land is naturally rich, and much more might be made of it by the people, whose agricultural implements are little better than pieces of bent wood. Maize, barley, and oats seem the commonest crops, with a small grain called *teff*, which makes their favourite black bread. Many kinds of fruit might be grown, but both fruit and vegetables are neglected as food. In some parts the ground appears to be all taken up; in others the misery of an ill-ruled and long-disturbed country is told by dwindled towns, deserted fields and villages, mountains once terraced to the top for cultivation but ruined by civil wars, in which only brigands flourish. One district has been observed to thrive through its hill caves, in which the inhabitants could store their grain and take refuge with their cattle on the approach of plundering marauders. Besides a breed of humped cattle, and oxen with huge horns used as drinking-vessels, the people keep sheep and goats, but have the Jewish prejudice against pigs, and the dog also bears a like reproach among them. As beasts of burden, mules are preferred to the poor horses, donkeys and camels being also used; and the oxen are put to ploughing, the cows supplying beef as well as milk and butter. At present the national wealth seems to be rather in stock than in crops.

Abyssinia has still room for wild animals, and of the largest size. Elephants are plentiful in some parts, and in some lions, the slaying of which is an exploit that gives a man the right proudly to adorn his head with the mane, worn like a saint's aureole. Baboons and monkeys swarm in the rocky ravines, chattering at an unarmed man, but wisely making off, it is said, when they see him with a gun. Deer, gazelles, zebras, and ostriches scud over the hot plains, shy giraffes haunt the forests. Panthers, leopards, and other slinking preyers invade the edges of culture; and the loathsome hyæna is always ready to act as a scavenger, sometimes venturing to attack children and feeble old folk; in packs they are said to war with the lion. The rhinoceros and hippopotamus are found on the lower levels, and bears are doubtfully reported in the mountains. Birds of prey are more common than sweet songsters. The streams and lakes abound in fish, easily dried in the fine weather, and easily caught, when the water is low, by proceedings more practical than sportsmanlike. Partridges, guinea-fowl, and quails will be shot by native sportsmen, who are not keen after the many water-fowl. Everywhere one has to beware of serpents, scorpions, locusts, and various insect plagues. Wild bees are exceedingly common, contributing such a share of the people's nourishment that Father Lobo, as translated by Dr. Johnson, calls Abyssinia a land of butter and honey. The same writer mentions as a custom of the country that a rich man would treat himself yearly to a bath of milk for every thousand head of cows he possessed. Perhaps the milk was not wasted on a bath alone, for the Abyssinian peasant is a far from cleanly person, who feels no repugnance to using vessels made of dry cow-dung, and gorges himself on black honey, befouled by masses of dead bees, wax, twigs, and other rubbish. Wax might be included among the exports, but it is not easily conveyed across the hot plains.

As to the human animal, there is not much to be said in his praise, except as strong and enduring when he has to work, fierce and cruel when he takes up the more congenial duty of bloodshed. He is commonly above the mean

size, chocolate-brown in colour, shading off either into sooty-black or into a dark olive; his features often like a European's in all but hue; his hair black and inclined to be curly, a tendency which he, or still more *she*, may encourage by plaiting or frizzing, but in some parts both sexes cut their hair short. He wears trousers coming half-way below the knee, and a shirt, over which he has a loose toga called *shamma*, these garments generally of linen or cotton, white to begin with but soon wearing brown. Those who can afford it have woollen shammas decorated with a broad stripe, or hooded goat-hair cloaks for bad weather. Striped silk shirts and embroidered cloaks, or the skin of the lion, are signs of distinction, as is a handkerchief tied round the head, for the most part left bare like the feet.

Photo. P. Mathieu

Abyssinian Women at a Well

Menelik has set a fashion of wearing European wide-awakes, which make an incongruous contrast with the native costume. Umbrellas are much used, gorgeous ones by great men, and parasols of grass or wickerwork canopies by the country-folk. The women's ordinary dress is a folded wrapper that covers all the body; the better class of them wear trousers, and all are given to bangles, necklaces, anklets, rings, hair-pins, charms, and other gewgaws, while many put themselves to the torture of having their hair done up in elaborate plaits, which are greased by placing a pat of butter on the top to melt in the sun. Many of these highly-adorned fair ones have a certain *beauté de diable* to the eye, but a European finds them seldom pleasing to the nose, rancid butter entering far more into their toilet than soap; indeed, washing is a rare religious ceremony. The man's proudest ornament is a crooked sword, which he wears on the right side, and uses at meals to carve his meat. Lances, daggers, and matchlocks are the native weapons; but the army of 70,000 men, which makes

the nucleus of a national militia, Menelik has found means of arming with modern rifles. Each warrior appears to array himself according to his means and fancy, except a corps of artillery, which for some years has worn a green-and-red uniform.

Both in peace and war the people love noisy music, supplied by shrill fifes, stringed instruments, clangorous trumpets made of elephant skins, and, above all, drums. They are fond of chess, and a kind of game called *gibberta*, far spread over Africa, played with iron balls in holes hollowed upon square boards. Youngsters exercise themselves with world-wide athletic sports, such as hockey, wrestling, leap-frog, and trials of strength. They get more than their industry's fair share of holidays from the many festivals of their Church, among which Easter and Epiphany, as well as Christmas, take a leading place. The Ethiopian calendar deals out thirty days to each month; then at the end of their year, in our summer, come five odd days, treated as a holiday period for amusement and the exchange of presents, when for once in a way, too, people are bound to bathe, beginning the year clean. The years as well as the months have names, St. Matthew, St. Mark, St. Luke, and St. John as patron of leap-year, when, of course, there are six extra days to spend in religious mirth.

It will be remembered how Bruce was derided for asserting that the Abyssinians cut steaks from living cattle; but this is quite their taste. Raw meat makes their favourite food, a fact which accounts for the prevalence of tape-worm among them; and the way they tear and hack at still quivering flesh is enough to take away a more fastidious appetite. The rest of the meal will usually be thin cakes of sour half-baked bread, which they dip into a greasy sauce highly seasoned with red pepper. Fingers serve as forks, and swords as knives. Some shred of refinement in this coarse feeding is shown by the custom of a great man's attendants holding up their robes to hide him while in the act of eating and drinking. As to drinking, the Abyssinians seem concerned to testify against Moslem temperance, excess being checked more by poverty than by principles. The popular beverage is a kind of thin beer, brewed from maize or barley, upon which at least it is slow work getting "forrarder". The wine of the country is *tej*, made by fermenting honey, with hops or bark, this product varying in taste, according to quality, from acid cider to something like hock. Ardent spirits also are made from grain, and the Abyssinians take but too kindly to European strong waters when they can get them. Count Gleichen tells us how, his party being short of supplies, the doctor concocted a beverage for entertaining the natives, which they highly relished, its foundation being methylated spirit, flavoured by red pepper, Worcester sauce, peppermint, ginger, and such like. Though drunkenness is thought no shame of, these far from "blameless" Ethiopians have a religious prejudice against smoking, but use tobacco in the way of snuffing and chewing.

Their houses are for the most part round huts of stone and mud, or of wood, with conical thatched or whitewashed roofs; often their only shelter is a lair of straw no bigger than a haycock. In the dark interior, the most prominent points may be horns fastened in the wall for hanging up shields and weapons, which here take the place of chairs or bedsteads. Horns are much used for domestic utensils, as well as vessels of home-made iron or pottery, and mats and baskets cleverly made of grass. Occasional specimens of more pretentious architecture may often be referred to the short period of Portuguese

influence; and there are some ancient remains to set archæologists speculating on Arab, Greek, or Persian instruction.

Few towns of note are found in Abyssinia, whose easily-moved capital is merely the sovereign's camp. Menelik's present residence, Addis Abbaba, has been chosen at the south end, in his native Shoa, standing 8000 feet above the sea. A hill in the centre is covered by the "palace", an enclosure of modest buildings, the Emperor's own quarters being a whitewashed house about 45 feet high, from the upper story of which his favourite amusement is surveying the "city" through a right royal stock of telescopes. What he sees, set in a frame of mountain heights, is mainly a collection of smaller enclosures spread over

Photo. P. Mathieu

Verandah of Palace, Addis Abbaba

many miles, where his dependent chiefs live among the huts and tents of their "tail", a varying number that from time to time may swell a population called 10,000. His own compound includes a hall in which a regiment of hangers-on can be rudely feasted, an audience-chamber where he receives guests in barbaric state, his private chapel, several workshops that may be called the national arsenal, and a treasury or store-house, guarded by eunuchs, which one visitor found heaped pell-mell with gorgeous raiment, richly-ornamented bucklers, gold and silver crowns, services of china from Europe, illuminated Abyssinian bibles, stereoscopes with truly Parisian pictures, surgical instruments, old shoes, and various dusty trumpery. In another building, distinguished by a clock-tower, the Emperor listens to complaints and dispenses summary justice. The rough-and-ready admonition of flogging is freely administered for slight offences; in more serious cases there is an attempt "to make the punishment fit the crime", the thief's hand being cut off, the slanderer's tongue torn out; and a slayer is

handed over to the kin of his victim that they may exercise the law of retaliation at will. More than one recent traveller mentions the curious "leading case" of a wood-cutter who accidentally killed a man in falling from a tree, and was condemned to death in the same manner, but could not find an executioner among the Shylocks demanding his blood! A singular feature in Abyssinian law is that, in obscure cases, a little boy will be set to dream of the culprit, and such divination supplies a verdict acted upon as surely as that of a British jury enlightened by an Old Bailey barrister. In theory, we are told, the Emperor alone has the right of condemning to death; but the practice of his viceroys appears to be not much shackled by this restriction.

Photo. P. Mathieu

General View of Harrar

Ankober, in the same part of the country, was once the imperial residence; and another neighbouring one, Entotto, came to be abandoned, as the mushroom Addis Abbaba may be in turn, when the wood around it has been worked out. Gondar, in the central Amhara province, north of Lake Tsana, used to figure on our maps as the capital, a position which it long held through its rank as the centre of the Abyssinian Church; but the comparatively imposing buildings of this city have been utterly ruined by the Mahdi's dervishes. Axum, an older place in the north-east, is remarkable for its large cathedral and monasteries, within an enclosure nearly a mile in circuit, making a city of refuge where the worst of criminals may take sanctuary, as in other sacred precincts; and the vicinity shows tombs and monoliths of great antiquity, one unique row beginning with rude unhewn blocks like those at Stonehenge, which, farther on, begin to be squared and carved till the series ends with tall, highly-decorated obelisks. Axum is not far from Adua, chief town of

Tigré, in the north-east corner, where the Italians met their crushing defeat, and near which is the present seat of the Abouna or Coptic head of the Abyssinian Church, driven by the dervishes from Gondar. At Lallibala, on the eastern mountain edge, monks have appropriated the ancient rock temples that make this the "Jerusalem of Abyssinia". To the south of it, about the centre of this escarpment, is the imposing rock fortress of Magdala, out of which Theodore was so easily turned by Lord Napier's army.

In the south-eastern corner, twelve days' march below Addis Abbaba, is Harrar, built of reddish stone, which, at a distance, gives it the air of a chocolate city. This place of 40,000 people or so, the largest and most renowned in the country, once independent and for a time held by Egypt, is still mainly Moslem, though now ruled by one of Menelik's viceroys. With its sprinkling of esurient Greek and other foreign merchants, it is an important knot of the trade caravans that, from the interior of Galla-land and Somali-land, bring their wares to the British and French ports; and it makes a half-way house between the coast and the present Abyssinian capital, connected through Harrar with Djibuti by telegraph wire, which is to be followed by a railway now in part constructed. On the lofty lands about Harrar, rich in coffee, grain, and the luscious holcus-grass, rises what is said to be the only perennial river of this region, the Erer, flowing through picturesque gorges towards the east coast.

It seems by no means certain that there are not in Abyssinia towns unknown to us, yet as large as any of those mentioned. Any figures as to their population are apt to be misleading, for this may be doubled by the residence of a great man with his rabble of retainers; while an outbreak of small-pox, cholera, or other infection, as a change in trade routes, may at any time reduce the place to a decaying village. The inhabitants of Abyssinia are given as three to four millions; but this is much of a guess, especially in view of its undefined boundaries to the south, and of the manner in which its impoverished mountaineers tend to emigrate into the plain country on the north, shared out by different European powers. Let us now pass on to the special characteristics of these borderlands.

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## GALLA-LAND

To the south of Abyssinia great stretches of little-known table-land and jagged chains are occupied by Galla tribes, who seem to represent a purer form of the Hamite stock of this region. The Gallas are usually well-grown, brown-skinned, curly-headed semi-barbarians, whose chief occupation is as cattle-owners and hunters, and tribal feuds keep them in practice as warriors; but in parts agriculture is more or less practised, covering the land for miles with heavy-headed durra and other crops round the native kraals. In the north they are in the way of being Mahommedans, all the more fanatical for their vicinity to Abyssinian Christians, but some have been won to Catholicism; in the south, where they shade off into negroid or dwarfish stocks, they commonly remain pagans. The skins of animals enter largely into what clothes they wear; but they also use cotton cloth or hair-woven fabrics, and have a certain skill in the making of wicker-work mats, pottery, and gewgaw ornaments. Dr.

Donaldson Smith remarked that highland tribes had usually learned from the mother of invention to make some kind of cloth, as was not the case with dwellers on hot plains. These are, in short, a wilder race of Abyssinians; but it is hard to speak generally of a people divided into so many tribes, some of whom have been found friendly to strangers, while the majority prove treacherous, suspicious, and bloodthirsty, as indeed they might well have learned to be from neighbours who ought to know better. The catholic inhumanity of savage life is shown among themselves by the servile state of probable aborigines, dispossessed and subdued by the Gallas, who are physically one of the finest races on the continent.

Time was when these sturdy lowlanders, as they are in relation to the high Abyssinian table-land, made themselves the terror of its more highly organized community; but the tables are now turned. Within Abyssinia the Gallas remain here and there as Gibeonites; beyond its bounds, the Emperor is pushing his claims to domination with the irresistible argument of deadly modern firearms he brings against the spears, swords, and shields of the disunited tribes. M. Vanderheym, who a few years ago accompanied Menelik on an expedition into a rich Galla country, describes the campaign as an orgy of massacre and devastation; the official report of human slaughter gave nearly a hundred thousand as killed, from which our author in his own mind took off some 75 per cent for boastfulness, still leaving an atrocious tale of bloodshed. Dr. Donaldson Smith, travelling along the border about the same time, found men moved to tears as they told how the Abyssinians drove off their children for slaves and their cattle as tribute. People so treated have little love for strangers, and a peaceful white man, taken here for a monster, there for a leper, can hardly trust himself in the Galla country without a small army as escort. Besides the danger of this magnified "heave-half-a-brick-at-him" spirit, explorers have to reckon with fever on the water-courses, with the difficulty of carrying supplies, and with courted perils from wild beasts: Prince Ruspoli here was stamped to death by an infuriated elephant, and his companion, Captain Bottego, was killed by exasperated natives. The American explorer above-mentioned took more than a year in making his way from Berbera to Lake Rudolf. So it is small wonder if the Galla-land remains little known, though inhabited by millions of people spread over hundreds of thousands of square miles, a region that for one valuable product has the ivory of its countless elephants, so fast being killed off in more accessible quarters.

Menelik's pretensions to sovereignty extend farther than his authority as yet, though this has been ruthlessly advanced in his reign. On the south of the Kaffa country it is met by the frontier line of British Uganda, neatly drawn on maps about 6° of north latitude. On the other side of this our control is equally vague over the Boran Gallas, who are said to be knit into some strength by an intertribal organization, on the borders of which have been found a race of pigmy men 5 feet high, and another who in contrast appear giants. The British line does not reach the sea, our eastern frontier in Galla-land being formed by the course of the Juba or Jub river, which, flowing south from the Galla table-lands, reaches the sea close to the equator. East of this lies a little-explored country, through which for hundreds of miles drains the Wabi Shebeli, "Leopard River", that, curving round from the same watershed, has the singular fate of running parallel to the coast and losing itself in a swampy lake before

it can join the Juba. Its upper tributaries water the rich Ogaden country, where has long lurked a danger to civilization in the person of a certain "Mad Mullah", one of those fanatical Moslem Messiahs who from time to time stir up so much mischief. Our campaign against him, it will be remembered, had on one side to be carried out through Italian territory.

In this basin of intermittent water-courses the Galla country merges with that of the Somalis, the coast-land people of Africa's north-eastern promontory. The shore of the Indian Ocean, from the mouth of the Juba to Cape Guardafui, belongs to the Italian sphere of influence, but this influence is as yet hardly felt beyond a few landing-places along twelve degrees of scorched shore; and what little we know of the inland is chiefly due to dauntless Italian pioneers, who, since their country's reverse on the other side of Abyssinia, have had less encouragement for pushing their explorations into a human wilderness. More than one Arab port, once flourishing on the sandy coast, have now gone to decay—Brava, ruined by the Portuguese four centuries ago, and Magdoshu, that longer held its place as a mart of the Indian Ocean. The Italians have made their chief station at Itala, higher up the coast, from which they do their best to control the petty sultans of southern and eastern Somali-land.

## SOMALI-LAND

The Somalis inhabit the Horn of Africa, that broad tongue narrowing to Cape Guardafui which makes the south corner of the Gulf of Aden as perilous to ships as the island is to wanderers among its inhospitable mountains. This people appear to be originally of the same wild stock as the Gallas, but modified through Arab invasions of the coast, so that the native superstitions are overlaid by Moslem observances. In parts the Somalis show a certain thin varnish of Arabian culture, and Burton declares them to have a strong turn for poetry. More often they appear as ruthless and deceitful barbarians, lazy and sullen, but capable of great activity when pillage is in question. Under their long *tobes* of white or gaily-tinted sheeting they have rather darker skins than the Gallas, with often well-formed features, and either shaved heads or huge mops of hair, which, as voyagers at Aden know, their fashion is to dye hideously with lime. Their tribal life of mutual raids does not tend to bring out the best qualities of human nature, which find a fairer chance of development under the hand of a firm but just master to keep peace in a Donnybrook Fair of spears, knives, and clubs. The Esas have the name of being the most manly tribe, and even they are described as bloodthirsty rather than brave; yet many of these "boys", when armed and disciplined, have given good service in dangerous explorations led by white men.

At one time the Somali Red Sea coast was by way of being ruled by Egypt, which has now given up its pretensions here. The southern stretch, facing the Indian Ocean, is under Italian protectorate, as we have seen. The most thickly populated part, comprising most of the southern shore of the Gulf of Aden and the table-land for nearly two hundred miles back, with some 150,000 people, has for the last twenty years or so been a British protectorate, more recently reduced, by thorough adjustment with Abyssinia, to 68,000 square miles, administered

by a consul-general, with three or four other English officials and a small force of native police. Originally treated as part of India, this modest dependency is now ruled directly from England. Under our Government goes on a steady progress of opening up the country and giving fair play to its commerce, while the number of "Somali boys" who take service in Aden or travel as far as London and Bombay as firemen on steamers, help to spread civilization by the report of higher standards than are set up by their fanatical mollahs. Something like gratitude is aroused among the border tribes by our protection from Abyssinian raids, which harried them as well as their Galla neighbours and foes. Then the Somali are roused to genuine admiration by the prowess of our plucky

On the Edge of the Wilderness, Somali-Land. (From a photograph.)

sportsmen, who make their most frequent foreign visitors. For the whole country is one natural zoological garden, in which the lion dominates an anarchy of wild beasts, preyers and preyed on. By a truly British arrangement some hundred miles of this lion-land is kept as a preserve for officers of the Aden garrison on the opposite coast; but there is plenty of room for such poachers of wealth, leisure, and adventurous turn as have done so much to extend our knowledge of the country, like Colonel Swayne, whose book describes seventeen arduous holiday trips, on which encounters with lions, elephants, and rhinoceroses seem to have made everyday incidents, and his only complaint is of the biggest game getting harder to find. For some time, however, Somaliland is not likely to be on the list of Cook's tours, even if its scenery and climate were more attractive. Recently, indeed, it has been the scene of a difficult war with the forces of that "Mad Mullah" whom our troops found so hard to bring to bay in the waterless interior, that, after great expenditure and little glory, the hunt after him was dropped; yet it is believed that his

influence over the tribesmen need not now be feared as a menace to nascent civilization.

The country may be described as three zones: a glaring flat, barren or jungly, along the coast, rising in steps to a broad table-land at the elevation of Snowdon, where the dry air becomes more tolerable; then behind this a loftier highland, on which mountain peaks reach a height of nearly 10,000 feet. Sterility is the commonest aspect of the stony soil, dotted with sun-baked boulders, sapless shrubs, tall ant-hills, and the workings of a mole-like rodent that throws up what seem miniature craters; but this is improved by spring and autumn rainy seasons quickly clothing the desert with soon-scorched grass. One high interior plain, called the Haud, is in the dry season a hundred waterless miles of thorny scrub and withered stubble, given up for half the year to wild beasts; then, after the rains have fallen, it makes a grazing and fighting ground for the surrounding tribes. The mountain valleys are more thickly wooded; and the intermittent water-courses, here known as *Tugs*, may be bordered by rich oases, which have excited travellers to thoughts of the Garden of Eden; but oftener they will agree with Mr. Vivian in exclaiming against the colourlessness of scenery nursing fierce forms of life and a stunted, shrivelled, prickly vegetation. "You are in a sea of gray. The fierce sun beats down upon you from a blue-gray sky; as you pass, gray shrubs nod at you in apoplectic grimness, and livid gray lizards shiver away over the gray sand; gray jackals eye you suspiciously from behind huge gray ant-hills; gray bones and skulls strew the beaten track in every stage of decomposition. It is only when the bright moon rises and sheds sepulchral shadows on every hand that all is transfigured with a haze of frosted silver. Between the intervals of desert are stretches of semi-desert, where the boulders are not rendered more tolerable by the intrusion of hills, though a certain variety is imported by the fantastic outlines of purple ranges, and brown mountains, shaped like tents and tabernacles, or by the graceful pose of umbrella-shaped trees." [1]

The chief wealth of the people is in their flocks, among which camels take the first place, their meat and milk being looked on as delicacies; but mutton is the common food, and the chewing of tobacco, mixed with ashes, the favourite luxury. Cows, sheep, goats, and ponies are also reared, to feed which the Somalis lead a half-nomad life, building, where they can find pasture, temporary kraals of bee-hive shaped huts, surrounded by a strong thorn fence as fortification against biped or quadruped enemies. When the tribe shifts its quarters this camp is burned, leaving a black circle on the ground. Their domestic utensils are simple, a common material being wicker-work, out of which they shape pails and buckets

[1] With this scene may be contrasted Burton's picture of a flooded stream-bed (*First Footsteps in East Africa*):—"The banks are charmingly wooded with acacias of many varieties, some thorned like the fabled Zakkum, others parachute-shaped, and planted in impenetrable thickets: huge white creepers, snake-shaped, enclasp giant trees, or connect with their cordage the higher boughs, or depend like cables from the lower branches to the ground. Luxuriant parasites abound: here they form domes of flashing green, there they surround with verdure decayed trunks, and not unfrequently cluster into sylvan bowers, under which—grateful sight!—appears succulent grass. From the thinner thorns the bell-shaped nests of the Loxia depend, waving in the breeze, and the wood resounds with the cries of bright-winged choristers. The torrent-beds are of the clearest and finest white sand, glittering with gold-coloured mica, and varied with nodules of clear and milky quartz, red porphyry, and granites of many hues. Sometimes the centre is occupied by an islet of torn trees and stones rolled in heaps, supporting a clump of thick jujube or tall acacia, whilst the lower parts of the beds are overgrown with long lines of lively green colocynth. Here are usually the wells, surrounded by heaps of thorns, from which the leaves have been browsed off, and dwarf sticks that support the water-hide. When the flocks and herds are absent, troops of gazelles may be seen daintily pacing the yielding surface; snake-trails streak the sand, and at night the fiercer kind of animals, lions, leopards, and elephants, take their turn. In Somaliland the well is no place of social meeting; no man lingers to chat near it, no woman visits it, and the traveller fears to pitch hut where torrents descend, and where enemies, human and bestial, meet."

made water-tight by gum or bark. Signs of more permanent settlement are deep funnel-shaped wells, the bottom reached by steps on which a ladder of naked men pass up the filled vessels; but these often have been abandoned as tempting points of attack. A safer nucleus for a fixed village is some mollah of such fame for sanctity that hostile bands will respect his residence. Among the proud herdsmen, servile castes are found practising trades, or picking up a livelihood by hunting with poisoned arrows and gathering gum and perfumes. There is little cultivation; but much of the steppe country needs only a constant water supply to be kept fertile. The trees are chiefly thorny and spiky, for which gray boulders form "the rockery of a strange withered garden", their very fruit sometimes being nothing but a pale ball of tasteless fibres; but some bear bunches of bright berries among their fleshy leaves; and the sycamore and the jujube swell in true African luxuriance, making a home for gay-plumaged birds. The thorns and desert scrub yield various gums, among them the rich myrrh and frankincense for which Arabia has been famed. These, with ostrich feathers and hides, make the bulk of the wares brought down to the coast in caravans. Mutton is another leading export, the garrison of Aden alone eating up many flocks of Somali sheep.

The towns in which live the settled trading population are all on the coast. The chief one is Berbera, opposite Aden, which has some 30,000 inhabitants, and is the seat of British rule, as it has long been the stage of an intertribal fair lasting through half the year, when one of its staple wares used to be that "black ivory", now saleable only on the sly. Farther west comes Bulhar, and near the western end Zeila, places about half the size of Berbera. On these towns converge the caravan routes from the interior, bringing greater traffic the more the country becomes safe for travel; but so far as Abyssinian trade is concerned, Zeila seems bound to suffer from the competition of the neighbouring French colony.

As appendix to the Somali region may be mentioned the French and Italian colonies Obok and Eritrea, which as yet have scarcely importance enough to claim separate headings, though they form considerable slices cut away from Abyssinia.

Obok, at the west end of Somali-land, takes its name from a coaling station established by the French forty years ago, on the muddy mouth of a river, which, as a critical visitor remarks, is dry 364 days in the year. A good harbour was found here on the north side of Tajurrah Bay, deeply indenting the coast outside the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb. For a very small sum France bought the land round this gulf, with sovereignty over some 20,000 people; and there grew up a settlement, which was, as usual with French colonies, largely composed of officials, but also of missionaries and of merchants bent on pushing trade into Abyssinia. The inland route from Obok, however, proving impracticable, the merchants moved to Djibuti on the other side of the gulf; the Government followed them; and this port of new, well-built houses, fringed by a native village and struggling gardens, is now the centre of the protectorate.

The climate in summer is so hot that the governor has been driven from his residence to take refuge on board a gun-boat, so only duty or the *auri sacra fames* will drive a Frenchman to this station of French commerce. As yet its European inhabitants are counted by scores; but Djibuti may be expected to grow into a place of considerable importance. The French contrived first to win the favour

of Menelik, who is a keen man of business, and their merchants were enterprising enough to set up agencies in his capital; but of late years they have found rivals in British Indian traders; and it appears as if the Emperor's good-will is shifting towards us. While Zeila and Djibuti are about equally distant from Harrar, the commercial centre of Abyssinia, the latter port has the advantage of a railway already pushed some 200 miles inland to Diré Daouah, whence the Emperor desires it to be carried on to his capital, Addis Abbaba; and, if the money for this enterprise be forthcoming, the Abyssinian caravan trade, which hitherto has mainly gone through British Somali-land, is almost certain to be diverted to the French port. Of course there is no saying what may happen through a change of ruler

Photo. P. Mathieu

Djibuti, from the sea

or through the deep policy of the present Negus, who is understood to covet nothing so much as a port of his own, and may possibly be considering from which of his European neighbours he can get one on the easiest terms. But if France and Abyssinia keep good partners, it looks as if their agreement was like to be at the expense of our commerce. Russia also is believed to have had an eye to a footing on this coast, where a colony would be of little value unless as a base for trade; and German traders are found prospecting in the interior.

Within the Bab-el-Mandeb Strait, half the western coast of the Red Sea is bordered by the Italian Eritrea, christened from the classical *Erythræum Mare*, that denoted the whole Indian Ocean with its gulfs. Here also private enterprise began a settlement, which has been extended along nearly seven hundred miles of coast, mainly inhabited by the Moslem Danakil tribes, as to whom it seems hard to say whether they are more nearly akin to their Galla or Somali neighbours. In the south this territory is formed by a desert plain; in the centre

it contracts to a narrow coast-line; in the north it broadens out towards the Nile basin, so as to include the northern corner of the Abyssinian highlands, here coming nearer to the sea. Till a few years ago the Italians kept pushing their acquisitions farther into Abyssinia, and assumed a protectorate over the whole country; but it turned out that Menelik had no mind to be protected; then their pretensions were cut short by the sanguinary battle of Adua—a sore blow to a kingdom that cannot afford to carry on costly distant wars. As it is, Italy retains a large stretch of the highlands bounded on the south by the valley of the Mareb, which, through grand scenery recalling the Austrian Dolomites, takes its way to the Nile as a tributary of the Atbara. In the same highlands rises the Baraka, an intermittent stream that seems to be giving out, but still makes the chief river of the Red Sea, into which it falls near Suakim, after a northerly course of 250 miles. On the west of its course the Italians have given up Kassala and the lower part of the Mareb to the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan state.

What remains is a country almost as large as Italy itself, inhabited by a few hundred thousand natives and by two or three thousand Europeans, of whom a proportion are genuine colonists. A hopeful feature of colonization is the lofty terraces on the north, where Italians can live and work better perhaps than northerners, who would find themselves not so much at home under a hot sun. Potatoes have been successfully planted on these heights, and Italian peasants have a congenial task in cultivating the olive, that here grows wild. On the plains the crops of the region are raised by native labour. Gold-mining is being tried. Pearl-fishing is an industry of the coast. Then the Italians are experimenting in promising new industries, or improving native ones, such as the making of cordage from the fibre of the aloe, whose fiery spikes rise rank as gigantic weeds.

The chief town is Massowa, chief port of the Red Sea, which, standing on coral islands in a bay shut in by the Dhalac Archipelago, is one of the many places that claim to resemble Venice. Though considerably reduced in population since the Italian reverses, Massowa has an active trade, and appears a well-built, well-lit place, whose European inhabitants suffer in the sweltering heat, but have an airy retreat on the heights behind, from which they are supplied with water. A railway runs inland, at present for no great distance; but it may some day be continued to Asmara, which, standing over 6000 feet, makes the Simla of Eritrea. Another place of note is Keren, long centre of the Latin Catholic mission that has made some progress in reforming Abyssinian Christianity; while on the coast both French and Italian war-ships do good service in helping to keep down the piracy and slave-running not yet driven from the Red Sea.[1]

[1] Menelik was given out as dead in March, 1910, after false reports as to the end of a life on which so much depended. He was succeeded by his grandson, Lidj Jassu, a boy of fourteen, with Ras Tessama as guardian and regent, said to be an enlightened chief. The Empress made some attempt to take the government into her own hands, and though she was made prisoner, her partisans may yet cause trouble. The late Emperor was understood to have fallen out with his French friends, and to have let German influence make way at his court, where the young prince is said to have had a German governess. Before his death, Menelik appears to have become a patron of motor cars, by means of which he proposed to connect his capital with the French rail-head, when he withdrew his favour from the company struggling to complete that enterprise. But if we cannot always trust our newspapers as to what is happening in the glare of gas and electric light, still less are they sure to be well informed of anything new out of Africa. A year after the announced death of Menelik he was said to be still alive, though in a state of helpless paralysis; so the uncertainty may justify us in speaking of him above in the present tense. A recent report (1911) is of the death of the regent, his successor; but this also was contradicted amid rumours of what looks like a hatching of civil war.

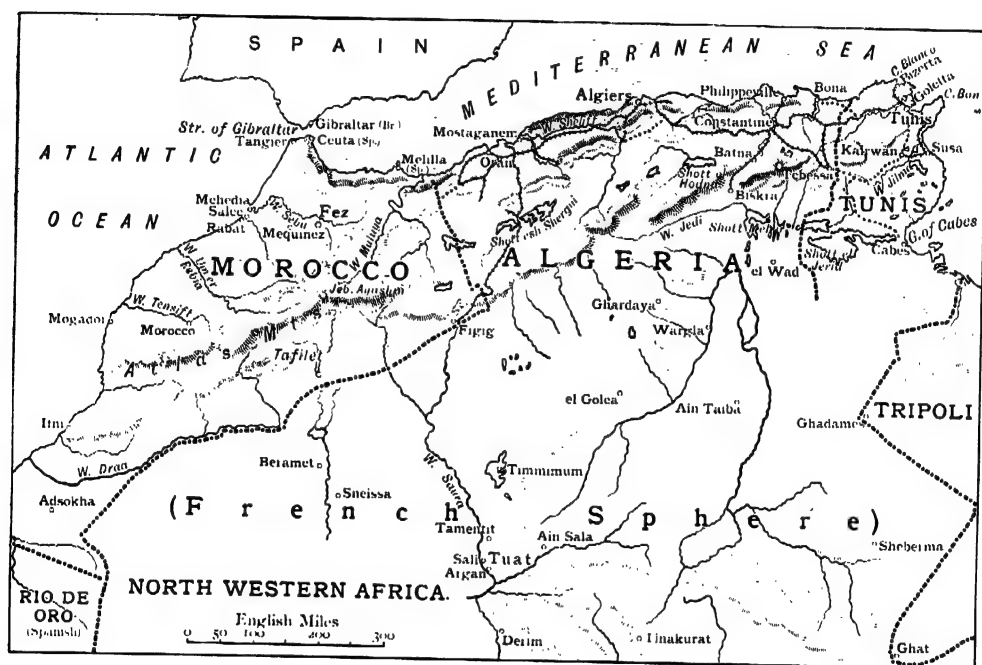
# THE BARBARY STATES

## EL MOGHREB

The north-western coast of Africa, like Abyssinia, has an exceptional conformation. Here rises the great Atlas chain, islanded on the south by a sea of sand, beyond which are the lower heights and table-lands more characteristic of the continent. On the eastern side, opposite Greece and Italy, the Tripolitan ridges make an archipelago of rugged tops; but the Bay of Cabes beyond marks a depression through which the sea has flowed, where still extend a series of shallow salt lakes, cutting off the north-western mountain block, formerly a peninsular projection of Europe. Here, then, the varied elevation helping to modify African heat, we have a mixture of scenery and productions belonging both to Africa and to Southern Europe, while the relations of the peoples on the opposite shores have been such as to blend their blood in some degree without softening the hostility of race and religion.

The name Barbary comes from Berbers, the prevailing stock of population. This fair-skinned Hamitic race seems to have invaded among prehistoric aborigines, and, since they were themselves conquered by the Romans, they have been recruited by a succession of different strains. The northern Vandals crossed over into Africa, and were in turn overthrown by the Byzantine Empire. Then came the flood of Arab fanaticism that obliterated the older landmarks of civilization. The north-west of Africa, under the name of El Moghreb, has since been known as a division of the Moslem world, with Arabic as its common language, the old Berber tongue lingering in the mountains and desert oases. The attempts of mediæval Catholic princes to gain a footing here had no permanent success; but most of the coast-line fell under the power of the Osmanli Turks, who became an oppressive aristocracy as in Egypt. Moor, a word very loosely used by old writers, seems best to denote the dominant element of originally Asiatic townspeople. The name Berber applies rather to the mixed race of more or less settled country-folk and mountaineers who are Mohammedans with certain differences, the position of their women being often higher than is usual in the East. The wandering pastoral tribes, who have better preserved the customs of their Eastern ancestry, are more fitly called Arabs or Bedouins. In the trading towns, and even in oases far inland, are found communities of Jews, closely united by their heritage of popular hatred and contempt. Negroes from the Soudan and wild tribes from the Sahara have amalgamated with the confused stock, that had an infiltration of Christian blood from the hapless captives brought into Barbary ports for a fate which often they escaped by adopting the creed and manners of their tyrants.

The Barbary States long bore an evil name in Europe through their dens of sea-robbers, who in the practice of piracy only bettered an example set them not only by heathen Vikings but by Christians, for the crusading princes and the commercial states of Italy made no scruple of enslaving infidels. The peculiar feature of North African piracy was its lasting into modern times as the leading industry of powers founded on this seaboard by Moslem adventurers. The "Red Beard" brothers and Dragut were grim heroes of the great school of pirates that came to an end with the battle of Lepanto, to be succeeded by a swarm of petty corsairs, who boldly ventured into the Atlantic, pushing their depredations as far as the Dutch and Irish coasts. Algiers acquired a pre-eminence in this hateful business, carried on also from Tunis, Tripoli, and other Barbary ports. The chief mari-

time nations for three centuries took such injury as a matter of course, now and then, indeed, making an attempt to chastise the corsairs, but more often being content to protect their own vessels by humiliating "treaties" that practically came to paying blackmail. Divided by its own quarrels and rivalries, Europe was content to be defied by fleets of a score of ships; and some of the great powers even saw their advantage in a system that checked the commerce of feebler rivals.

Many a tale of misery tells us what it was to be captured by a Barbary corsair, from the days of Don Quixote to the early part of last century. Unless the poor slave could find means of ransom or of rare escape, he had no hope to see his native land again. Often he shook off the heavy yoke by turning renegade, from which class came many of the most active and ruthless corsairs. Christian slavery became so much an institution in the Barbary ports that political and religious establishments were founded for its mitigation. The chief nations kept consuls here, whose perilous duty it was to see that their countrymen got the

benefit of the tribute paid for exemption. Devoted Catholic missionaries gave their lives to the redemption and comforting of captives, whose bitter lot they did not shrink from sharing. In Protestant countries, too, the ransoming of Algerian captives was a recognized form of charity, more warmly called forth on the shores of the Mediterranean, where, to this day, villages close packed on inaccessible rocks show how their inhabitants were once exposed to piratical attacks.

From time to time spasmodic efforts came to be made against this enemy of Christendom. Charles V gained a footing on the Barbary coast, and led the last of the Crusades to disaster at Algiers, whose walls had a stormy shore for their best defence. In the seventeenth century, Algiers was more than once bombarded by French fleets, so far humbling its haughty ruler that he agreed to respect the French flag for the future. In the eighteenth century, Spain undertook a task too heavy for its enfeebled strength. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, a small American squadron gave a sharp lesson to the pirates of Tripoli; then, when the fall of Napoleon set her fleet free, England took up the duty of a power that now ruled the waves. In 1816, Algiers was bombarded by Lord Exmouth's fleet, with the assistance of Dutch men-of-war, forcing its government to grant the abolition of Christian slavery and to release more than a thousand Christian slaves. But still the pirates went on seizing Christians here and there, while careful not to meddle with the shipping of great naval states. Finally, in 1830, the French had the honour of exterminating this plague by the capture of Algiers, and in a costly war of twenty years spread their conquest over Algeria. Since then, they have gone on extending their sphere of influence both along the coast and inland, while warning off other European nations that would fain share in the work of civilizing and exploiting North Africa.

This region, one of the richest provinces of the Romans, has for centuries been impoverished by ignorant fanaticism and tyranny, even the climate having deteriorated through destruction of the forests and invasion of desert sand. Many spots have, however, been saved from ruin; and large areas prove not beyond reclamation. Most of the land divides into three zones. On the coast are the fertile valleys and plains, watered by a somewhat uncertain winter rainfall, and by the rapid flood-beds called *Oueds*, which in hot weather run almost or altogether dry: here grow the crops and fruits of South Europe. Behind come mountains or high table-lands, more fit for pasture than culture, where the climate invites European settlement, but on the western side rising to uninhabitable altitudes in the chains of the Great Atlas. Behind, the slopes fall by tracts of coarse scrub and briny lakes into the true desert, with its spots of oasis on a tawny ground, which the classical simile well compares to a panther's hide.

The leading industry of such a land will be pastoral; and the chief wealth of the inhabitants is in their flocks of sheep and goats, herds of horses and camels, which supply the material for their moving tents and for their coarse outer garments, the most characteristic one the *burnous* or hooded sack, that gives shelter against both rain and sun, sometimes replaced by another ample wrapper that seems descendant of the Roman toga. Corn is grown in the richer districts, wheat and barley being pounded and steamed to make the basis of the popular dish *kouss-kouss*, enriched by a stew of flesh or other seasoning. The nutritious date-palm, flourishing in the hot south, also enters largely into the people's food, the fruit ground up into meal, which, when baked into dry cakes, tastes not unlike oatmeal, while the crushed stones serve as fodder for animals. Other productions

of this region may be best mentioned in surveying its countries as modified by European domination, which in the centre is firmly fixed, and can hardly be long restrained from spreading over the backward states at either end.

The Moslem civilization that once flourished here had no deep roots. There was a time when Arab physicians, philosophers, architects might have given lessons to Europe; but the learning of El Moghreb is now confined to the Koran. When the French took Algiers, they found there a young German who had been surgeon's apprentice on board a Dutch man-of-war, and being sold into slavery,

Photo, Neurdein Frères

Date Palms, South Algeria

made a lucky hit in treatment of his master's overeating, on the score of which achievement he became the chief doctor in the city, whose only native practitioners were ignorant quacks and barbers, and the most skilful operators, the Dey's executioners. In religion there appears the same decay, where a lunatic passes for a saint; where the wearing of a green turban, as sign of descent from the prophet, is more honoured than a virtuous life; and where worship consists chiefly in vain repetition of the sacred name.[1] Law is represented by the decisions of the Kadi and the Mollah, with the Koran for code. The townsfolk have grown demoralized and effeminate, their brightest point being the gay jackets and baggy breeches, that in the case of the women are never seen out of doors, where only lustful eyes can be caught through a slit in their mantling veils. The

[1] *Bi 'ism Allah*, says Rohlfs, is the universal watchword of the Moslem. "He says it when he gets up in the morning—when he puts on his clothes—when he goes out into the street—when he cudgels his pupils—when he cuffs his wife—when he accepts alms—when he assassinates his enemy—when he goes into the mosque—when he swears a false oath—when he is dropping off to sleep—and when he is giving up the ghost."

bolder and ruder nomad tribes hold plunder for the chief end of man. The boasted chivalry of the Arab is chiefly a matter of dignified bearing and dashing horsemanship, which he delights to show off with dexterous brandishing of weapons and childish blazing of powder. The Berber, as a rule, is a less picturesque but more practical person, not so bigoted as the Arab nor such an inveterate enemy of improvement, while the once dominant race cling to the creed, customs, and morals which they brought from their ancestral Asia. These intermixed races, their tribes, and sometimes even neighbouring families, live in chronic mutual hostility, unless within reach of some power able to keep peace among them. They are united only by the inbred antipathies of religion, turned full against any master that would force them to industry, honesty, and obedience to wholesome law; and the native detestation of Christians—still known here as *Roumi*, Romans—is not lessened by dread of an interfering superiority which threatens once more to subdue North Africa.

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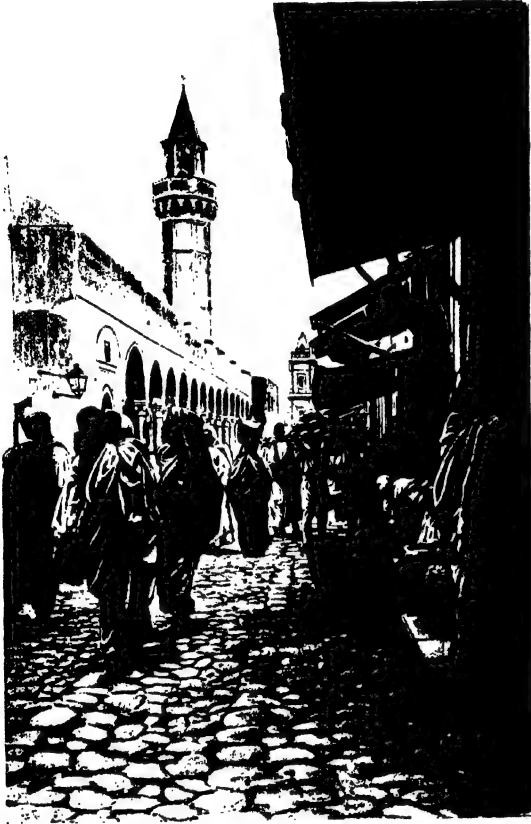
## TRIPOLI

Tripolitana, as it is sometimes called, is the largest of the old Barbary States, yet now the least important, as most blighted by nature and by Turkish domination. Between Egypt and Tunis its coast-line extends for nearly a thousand miles; then its doubtful southern boundaries lie so far back in the desert as to include an area of at least 400,000 square miles. Much of this belongs to the Libyan desert, the most hopeless stretch of the Sahara, which on the northern shore often comes down to the sea in barren sand-hills. Low rocky chains break up a surface of sandy and stony plains, on which ancient culture has shrunk into islands of struggling greenery, here and there more thickly clustered. The general aspect is that of Arabia with less imposing mountain features. The whole population is estimated at a million or so. Of these only a few thousand on the coast are Christians, most of them Italians, and indeed Maltese, who in blood and speech have some affinity with the native inhabitants. There is a larger number of Jews, who find their account in the native ignorance and shiftlessness. The Turks treat this dependency as a kind of hot Siberia, to which not the best elements of Turkish society find their way. They are said to number some 25,000, including an army of 10,000, under a pasha who has much ado to make his authority felt within its nominal bounds, and who, if he were the Archangel Gabriel, could hardly get good work out of the rusty and clumsy machinery of Ottoman misrule, even if oiled by the late Young Turkish revolution, as is reported.

It is understood that Italy keeps a covetous eye on Tripoli, restrained alone by French jealousy from acquiring this as an African dependency more easy to deal with than that distant Abyssinia. It might seem that any power was welcome to help itself to such a poor country; but in fact much of it needs only good management to be worth the expense of conquest. While in the interior rain may not be known for years, on the coast there is a winter fall ranging from 7 to 20 inches; and the remains of ancient works show how this might be husbanded and distributed where at present it is allowed to drain away uselessly. The climate would not be intolerable for Southern Europeans. Sometimes snow lies on the northern heights, soon melting indeed, and perhaps followed by the hot south wind, loaded

with desert sand, which makes its enervating influence felt across the Mediterranean as the Sirocco of Italy and the Föhn of the Alps.

The capital, its name preserving the memory of three ancient cities that flourished here, and known to the Turks as Western Tripoli in distinction from its Syrian namesake, has at least the picturesqueness of an unsophisticated oriental city, its massive citadel and slender minarets rising above the turreted walls and the flat roofs of close-packed houses, their whiteness thrown into relief by a belt of green palm groves, beyond which comes the glaring sand.[1] The population of the city and the oasis around is put at from 50,000 to 70,000. Its importance is as terminus of caravan-routes from the interior, even from the far Soudan, which, now that the old trade in ivory, ostrich feathers, and slaves falls off through various causes, still bring goat-skins and other hides to be exported or worked up into shoes in Tripoli. Salt and soda are also shipped; and the most thriving export seems to be that of halfa or esparto grass, so largely used by English paper-makers. The situation of this city has given it another note. Standing on a deep indentation of the Mediterranean between the bays anciently known as the Greater and the Lesser Syrtes, it makes the nearest gate of the Sahara, as Zanzibar was for the Equatorial Lake region; and to abridge the toilsome journey over inland deserts, several famous explorers have made this their starting-point, more than one never to return from among the bloodthirsty fanatical tribes of the interior, so that on excuse of the danger

Street Scene, with Grand Mosque, Tripoli

[1] The Rev. A. A. Boddy (*To Kairwan the Holy*) describes the narrow, tortuous streets, the dark interiors, and the crowded bazaars of Tripoli, then in contrast, the rich oasis scenery without its crenellated walls. "Palm-trees on all sides, tall and graceful, bowing ever and anon in the breeze, or basking in the scorching sun, pomegranate-bushes in abundance, with their crimson flowers, caroub-trees with ripening pods, stately olives planted so regularly row after row in the olive-yards, broad-leafed banana, flaming oleander, gentle delicate orange bloom, flower and bush and tree alike, all lovely with a semi-tropical loveliness. On all sides the white stone wings of the Beers, or wells, are seen, and the ever-creaking wheel as the patient ox descends an inclined plane drawing up the *dillu*, the great skin full of water, which gushes out into the irrigating channels directing its course. Here is the secret of most of the loveliness around. Strange-looking Bedouins pass us with their black burnt faces; some aloft on camels with the long *bindiggah*, the Arab gun, slung across their shoulders, some driving heavily-laden asses almost hidden by their loads, the driver often perched upon the overburdened donkey's back, until one wonders what exquisite torture can induce the tiny quadruped to amble along so briskly. The Moors and Arabs are all gracefully enveloped in the long white *baracan*, completely draping them, one end of its almost endless folds often flung over the *tarboosh* as an additional protection from the sun's fierce rays."

which it is too weak to obviate, the government sets its face against such expeditions.

The plain on which Tripoli stands is shut in by a range of mountain bluffs that once formed the sea-line, and are now the escarpment of stony table-lands within. Farther back comes El Hammada, a wide stretch of almost waterless and lifeless desert, where the Saharan features are at their superlative. To the west of this, on the Tunisian border, the oasis of Ghadames, inhabited by a mixed population, is a knot of trade routes from distant parts of the Soudan, and was once a frontier garrison of the Romans, now coveted by the French. On the south, El Hammada is bordered by volcanic heights, well named the Black Mountain, whose peaks rise 3000 to 4000 feet. Farther south comes a lower region, dotted with oases, which have the name of Fezzan. This hot and unhealthy region is nominally subject to Tripoli, its people, however, being very independent even of Turkish control. The chief town here, Murzuk, with its gloomy fortress, is said to have 7000 inhabitants; but it seems bound to decay with the slave-trade, which made its most profitable commerce. Beyond this, the claims of Turkish rule are pushed below the Tropic of Cancer to another range of Saharan mountains.

To the east of Fezzan, an almost unknown desert protrudes towards the sea, cutting the Tripolitan territory into two parts. The eastern part, beyond the deep Gulf of Sidra, is the promontory known as Barca, the ancient Cyrenaica, once populated from the opposite shores of Greece by a flourishing colony whose "five cities" are poorly represented in present gatherings of population, the chief of them, Benghazi, a port second only to Tripoli in its trade connections with the interior. The coast here forms a high plateau, whose slopes have a larger share of rain, and with a thicker population might become once more fertile. As it is, an English traveller has noted bits of culture that here and there seem to imitate a west of England landscape. Behind this again, lies a waste hiding oases rarely visited by travellers, and quite beyond the control of the Turkish government, everywhere a feebler authority than that of the Senoussi brotherhood, whose head-quarters are far out in the unknown Sahara, while its secret affiliated members have become specially numerous over the territory of Tripoli.

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## TUNISIA

The western shore of the great bay of Tripoli is edged by Tunis, and has for nominal ruler a bey, once a quasi-independent viceroy of the Porte, now practically a vassal of France, who by her military occupation of this country set us the example she grudged our following in Egypt. The point that here stretches out to Europe, was the original Africa from which this Roman title spread over the continent, supplanting the Grecian Libya. To Rome its name had long familiarity, for here was the site of her Phœnician rival, Carthage, and when their long contest turned in favour of the eternal city, here she fixed her own colony, whose remains are still found so thick upon its blighted soil.

Tunis, like Tripoli, is a ruined land, though not so utterly run to waste, and already beginning to show what could be done for it if Moslem indifference to facts were deleted from its life. It is mainly a tongue of ridges rising into

mountains some few thousand feet high, and cut off from the Sahara by a chain of the great salt marshes called *Shotts*, which swallow up most of its intermittent streams. The coast plains are particularly fertile in olives, where other fruits can also be grown with success. The uplands behind are fit for corn and pasture. The higher levels and stony mountains of the back country are to a great extent desert, like the Sahara beyond; but great stretches afford grazing to black goats and big-tailed sheep; and the French promote the rearing of camels, horses, and cattle. The new masters of the country also nurse the remnants of its mountain forests, recklessly destroyed in the past, among which the cork oak is common. Lead, iron, and copper mines are now worked by foreign companies, as are

Photo. Neurdein Frères

Bazar Souk-el-Trouk, Tunis

valuable marble quarries. There is a growing export of oil, wine, corn, dates, skins, esparto grass, &c. Then no small part of Tunisia's riches are in the fisheries of its coast, including coral and sponges, as well as tunny fish and sardines. This industry has been largely in the hands of Italians and Maltese, who still make the majority of the 100,000 Europeans here, while the French supply hardly one-third of this number, made up by more soldiers and officials than colonists; thus Italy finds reason to be jealous of the part France has taken in Tunisia. Jews contribute 60,000 to the whole population, which is growing on to 2,000,000, so that Tunisia, only one-tenth the size of its Tripolitan neighbour, has twice as many inhabitants. The coinage is French; and French superior courts administer justice. Among all her dependencies in Africa, this seems to be the only one that brings no loss to France.

Above one-tenth of the people are concentrated at the capital, Tunis, the largest

city of Barbary, where the majority are Europeans and Jews, they and the natives inhabiting different quarters, which have as common feature a glaring display of whitewash, said to be by no means emblematical of this city's moral state.[1] It stands on a neck of land between a salt lagoon and a half-choked-up lake opening into the Gulf of Tunis by a narrow throat called *La Goletta*, that makes the outer harbour; but a canal allows ships once more to come up to Tunis itself. A handsome European quarter merges into the older part with its *souks*, narrow-arcaded bazaars, no longer shut up in a fortified enclosure. The Kasbah, or Citadel, built by Charles V during the Spanish occupation, is now a French barrack; and the Bardo, a huge palace in the outskirts, has been in part utilized as a museum of the Roman antiquities so abundant in this country. Good French hotels have brought Tunis within the sphere of easy touring; but English visitors are still comparatively few. One interesting memorial they would find in the Protestant cemetery, the tomb of J. H. Payne, who died here as American consul, known all over the Anglo-Saxon world as author of "Home, Sweet Home", but his own life was that of a homeless wanderer. Whatever of sweetness there may be in a Tunisian home will not be revealed to strangers, for the proximity of Christians makes the seclusion of Moslem womankind more strict, while fat Jewesses are only too free in the exhibition of their mercenary charms. In most parts of Africa, plumpness is looked on as a feature of female beauty, a bride being often fattened up for her wedding, as appears to be the custom at Tunis. In men, too, corpulence is admired as a hint of wealth.

Outside the harbour mouth is the site of ancient Carthage, now taken by a lively summer bathing-place, and the most prominent building is a new cathedral in honour of the French king, St. Louis, who died here. There are only a few slight traces of the city of Dido. The ruins among which Marius sat have for centuries made a quarry for common use; and the marble columns that once adorned Carthage must be looked for in the mosques of Tunis, or the churches of Italy and Spain. What fragments have been left belong rather to Roman than to Punic Carthage. The most noticeable remains are the huge water-reservoirs, filled up with earth and making homes for Arabs; then far across the plain behind stand, in broken masses, the piers and arches of the aqueduct which brought water to the ancient city from the Zaghouan mountain streams sixty miles away, whence still Tunis is supplied by underground pipes along the line of this imposing conduit.

The chief river of Tunis, the Oued Medjerda, seems once to have reached the sea near Carthage, but has now shifted its sluggish and intermittent mouth to the north, where a marshy plain has emerged, setting miles inland the promontory

[1] "Of all the white cities of Tunisia no one is whiter than Tunis, whence its appellation of *The Burnous of the Prophet*, a title as appropriate as it is poetic. To gaze upon this bewildering mass of snow-white habitations from the Kasba walls or the terraced roof of the Dar-el-Bey, when the stillness of the air is broken by the voices of the *muezzins* calling to evening prayer, awakens feelings of solemnity that words would fail to express. From the city, spread out like a sheet, the eye wanders seawards over the shallow lake Borghaz, or el-Bahira, 'the little sea', as the Arabs call it, on one bank of which Tunis is built. Immediately in front is the modern port Gouletta, with its busy quays and shipping; to the right, the village of Radès, pleasantly situated on an olive-clad hill; to the left, the rising ground that marks the site of ancient Carthage, backed by the headland and whitened houses of Sidibou-Said. Turning inland, the salt-marsh of Sedjoumi skirts the southern walls of Tunis, and framing the horizon is one long succession of mountains and hills, vying with each other in beauty of outline, and culminating in the rugged peak of Zaghouan. Nearer the city walls, to the right are the Bardo Palace and the Gardens of Manouba, and beyond is the graceful outline of Djebel Merkey. All this, when viewed through the lucid atmosphere, and touched with the gorgeous colouring of this favoured clime, combines to make a fairy picture difficult to rival, never to be forgotten."—*Travels in Tunisia*, by Alexander Graham and H. S. Ashbee.

on which stood Utica, another great Phœnician port, that also is represented by mere fragments, unless a treasure of antiquity be buried below the soil. More evident remains of Roman and Byzantine conquest are found in many out-of-the-way inland spots, among them the well-preserved amphitheatre of Thysdrus, surpassed in size only by the Roman Colosseum.

When some future New Zealander comes to survey the ruins of modern Africa, he may find most interest at Bizerta, round the north-western corner of the Gulf of Tunis, where opens a large land-locked lake which the French are turning into a strongly-fortified harbour, a scheme looked on askance by Italy, and by no means admirable to the owners of Gibraltar and Malta. But in works of peace as well as war, the French are active, and have done much to improve the other towns of the coast, while making roads and railways into the interior, the principal line, indeed, being that one built in the first instance on military considerations, which along their African possessions joins Tunis with Oran.

After Tunis, the largest town, with a population of 50,000, is Sfax, newly prospering through valuable phosphate deposits in the background, tapped by a railway, as it has long thrived on the submarine beds of sponge dredged up among the islands opposite. It stands on the north end of the southern Gulf of Gabes, at the other corner of which is the island of Jerba, asserted to be the home of those "mild-eyed, melancholy lotos-eaters", and more authentically known as the retreat of fierce Barbary corsairs. Cape Africa, godfather of the continent, separates this bay from the Gulf of Hammamet, to the north, where is Sousa, that used to rank as the second place, but seems now to be only half as large as Sfax.

Forty miles behind Sousa, reached by a light railway, lies Kairwan, which was one of the first seats of Moslem empire in the west, and remains its holiest city, containing more than a hundred mosques and tombs, magnified to hundreds by orthodox zeal, which has been content to adorn the chief mosque with a forest of pillars taken from Roman buildings. Till the French occupation, no Christian could safely set foot within Kairwan; still the inhabitants will scowl and spit at strangers who, under the new regime, venture into its sanctuaries, though the mosques of Tunis are not yet open to unbelieving curiosity.[1] M. Jacassey has to tell how here, "the naked children who rolled in the dust, fled at my approach with frightful shrieks; the mothers took refuge under their screens, hiding their face in their hands; and the men glared upon me with wild and fearful looks". Such prejudices seem now somewhat overlaid by an eye to profit, fallen off in modern times, perhaps through Mecca becoming more accessible as a goal of holier pilgrimage. Kairwan has shrunk so much since its palmy days that its most revered shrine, a mosque containing relics of one of the Companions of the Prophet, now stands without the city, girdled by mounds of broken pottery, bones, and other rubbish of slovenly generations. The inhabitants, demoralized by their long service to fanaticism and by the vices that flourish under its shade, have as evil a repute as those of other Eastern sanctuaries. This is a rendezvous of the crazy or cunning dervishes who minister to the half-savage superstitions of the people, and sometimes rise to the fame of *marabout*, or Moslem saint, to be commemorated by one of those white tombs that are the chapels of the country. Kairwan is head-quarters of the sect of wonder-working fanatics, called *Aissaouia*, a

[1] One English or American lady is said to have got a safe peep at the chief mosque by the strange device of pretending to be mad, screaming, tearing her hair, and otherwise misbehaving within the sacred precincts, from which she was gently led by the sympathetic respect Moslems feel for such an affliction!

name said to be derived from Jesus, their practices being referred to the text, Luke x. 19, "Behold, I give unto you power to tread on serpents and scorpions", &c. The Senoussi brotherhood is also powerful hereabouts, so that any day the French may have to deal with a bloodthirsty revival of Mohammedan zeal, at present kept under by force of arms.

In the far south, below the Gulf of Gabes, the Matmata plateau, "carved and riven by water and sand-sharpened wind", projects into the Sahara on the uncertain frontiers of Tripoli, falling to the sea in a broken littoral which Sir H. H. Johnston found more like tropical than temperate Africa. This region, with the rock fortresses of its Berber inhabitants, hardly owned allegiance

Photo. Photochrom Co., Ltd.

Grand Mosque, Kairwan

to the Bey of Tunis, and is practically a new French conquest, occupied by troops who have their head-quarters at Meduin, a town chiefly made up of huge fortified grain-stores, *ksur* as they are called, which at a distance resemble English warehouses, while often, the same writer tells us, it is hard to distinguish between nature's masonry and the Cyclopean blocks piled up by early architects, rising over modern buildings of rubble and mud.

[1] "The picturesque effect of these hill-towns is enhanced by the simplicity and directness of the colouring. The sky, of course, is almost invariably a vivid ultramarine; the great mass of nearly vertical mountain, with its parasitic houses, walls, terraces, and castles is a uniform red-mud colour. This under a setting sun becomes *vieux rose* against a mauve-green sky. Here and there stands out a saint's tomb or a modern mosque or sheikh's house in vivid white; but ordinarily the colour of the buildings is so exactly that of the soil or rock that, but for the black slits or rounded hollows of the doors and windows which honeycomb the mass, you don't realize at first that you are looking at a town. The slender, spindly palm-trees that rise up from the ravines and valleys have scalloped trunks of dusty gray, but their crowns of fronds contribute an agreeable note of blue-gray-green to the brown and blue landscape."—Sir H. H. Johnston's *Sketches in Tunisia.*

## ALGERIA

France is proud of Algeria as her greatest colony, whose show of order and prosperity has cost her dear both in blood and money. She found it a semi-barbarous land ruled by tributary beys and sheikhs under the Dey or Pasha of Algiers, nominally a viceroy of the Porte, but in fact a creature of the turbulent soldiery to whose favour he owed his "despotism tempered by assassination". After the capture of the pirate city, the French had twenty years of campaigning in a difficult country against warlike tribes headed by the Emir Ab del Kader. Since then, once and again they have had to put down desperate revolts; so late as 1871 the colony saw scenes like those of our Indian Mutiny. If France should be again engaged in war with a great power, she might once more have some ado to hold a dependency which has never paid its expenses, its main advantage as yet to the conqueror having been as a school of arms, and a trophy of national pride.

This possession, representing the ancient Numidia, has a coast-line between 500 and 600 miles long, with a nominal breadth more than three times as great, for its southern bounds, or rather absence of bounds, take in the thinly-peopled desert down to the Soudan. The country is grandly "accidented" by mountain chains, given off by the Atlas system, their cliffs and gorges forming magnificent scenery, the interspersed valleys and plains affording rich soil, watered by rivers, most of which vary between the state of a trickle and a torrent, but often they can by art be stored up for irrigation, while their sand-choked mouths make them useless for navigation. The climate is hot without being too enervating, and the country on the whole is healthy, though malaria still infects low-lying spots. There is a considerable winter rainfall, somewhat uncertain in its arrival and duration. Snow, not quite unknown even on the coast, is familiar on the higher levels, where the winter proves more or less severe.

Such a country lends itself to a wide range of production, and the French have been active in developing its resources. They have preserved and replanted the mountain forests of oak, cedar, pine, and cork oak, among which accidental fires and incendiary fires will play havoc, and their destruction thus, or by the slow nibbling of goats, reacts on the climate. Among the trees which they have introduced, a great success is the Australian eucalyptus, grown in woods and in shady avenues along the roads as an antidote against malarious exhalations that once made many of the most productive parts uninhabitable to Europeans. Another most useful service of their engineers is the sinking of artesian wells, by which oases are created and extended even in the arid desert. Villages of colonists have been established in promising spots; and scientific agriculture is brought to bear on improvement of the native crops. The farming that seems best to flourish is the growth of what the French call *primeurs*, early fruits and vegetables, notably potatoes. Since the phylloxera played havoc with the French vineyards, many emigrants have taken to vine-growing in Algeria, its chief yield being a red wine, which, if all stories are true, figures often on our tables as genuine Bordeaux; but some brands deserve to be better known under their own name. This is so cheap in the country that, some years ago at least, one might get wine gratis at a hostelry where drinking-water must be paid for; and unfortunately the Algerian colonist is accused of too much consuming his own wine and more potent forms

of alcohol, including the absinthe that saps the manhood of France. Oil is another leading export, as is the halfa or esparto grass so much used by our paper-makers. Cotton and tobacco are successful in the warmer parts. As to minerals, Algeria is particularly rich in iron, but a want of coal is against her development as a manufacturing country. Copper, lead, and other ores are exported in smaller quantity; and there is a good supply of building-stone, including an excellent marble. The fisheries are not so productive as on the Tunis and Tripoli coasts.

The whole population is estimated at over four and a half millions, of whom some half million, leaving out the army, are Europeans, perhaps half of these

Photo. Neurdein Frères

The Gorge of El Kantara, Algeria (page 78)

Frenchmen. In the western parts the majority of the colonists are Spaniards; in the east Italians are numerous; and some of the most flourishing settlements are those of Alsatian Germans flying from the conquest of their own countrymen to be here comforted by the sight of their beloved storks.[1] Even in their day of pariah servitude, Jews made an important part of the population; and since they got fair play their numbers have increased, to the bitter dissatisfaction of the French, among whom anti-Jewish sentiment has grown particularly strong in Algiers.

The colony is divided into three provinces, Algiers in the centre, Constantine in the east, and Oran in the west, all under a governor-general, whose seat is

[1] It was the present writer's lot once to travel in the desert with such a Frenchman of German name, whose favourite topic was a large-minded treatment of national differences—why should we go to war about glory?—why not keep an open eye for the good points of foreigners? &c., but if one mentioned the name of Prussia, this philosopher would almost weep for rage!

Algiers. In the north, where the country is more settled, French law prevails, and the provinces are treated as departments of France, sending deputies and senators to the National Assembly. The southern districts are still ruled by military power, which proves more congenial to semi-barbarous subjects than the slow and expensive functions of civil justice. Besides keeping a strong French army in Algeria, France here recruits her ranks by native Spahis as cavalry and the active Turcos or Zouaves, whose uniform has become identified with dashing prowess like that of our Highlanders. A less popular contingent of the Algerian army is formed by the penal corps of graceless offenders, ironically known as "Zephyrs"; and a "Foreign Legion" recruited from black sheep of Christendom. A feature of all French soldiers' dress in Algeria is the *ceinture*, a broad "cummerbund", worn night and day, which their doctors declare to be a better protection against the sun than the thick headgear of our Indian army. Another novel sight is the beards of the French priests, where shaved faces would excite no respect among the natives. Held by the sword as it is, Algeria makes a hothouse for military pride, and here flourishes the soldier's scorn of the *pékin*, who, for his part, does not always represent the best elements of French life. Both seem apt to agree in looking down on the dignified native, with whom they communicate in the jargon called *sabir*, like the "pigeon-English" of the East. In the towns, however, many of the people learn to use French or Spanish.

Over the settled parts of Algeria have grown up new towns and villages, in which its exiles seek to recall the features of their never-forgotten France; and it has been a bar to colonial progress that the settlers usually prefer clinging to the neighbourhood of cafés and police-stations, instead of launching out into the wilderness like British or American pioneers. In the chief towns an influx of tourists has caused a demand for good hotels, but at less-visited places "travellers must be content" as best they can.

French money is the currency; but bank-notes are held in suspicion, and gold coins are absorbed as ornaments, so that on an Algerian journey one has to provide one's self with a bag of silver, most admired by the natives in the form of heavy five-franc pieces. Many parts are opened up by rail, the main line running right through the country, with branches to the chief ports, while more than one takes passengers to the edge of the desert. These lines being made on military rather than business considerations, the trains are neither many nor rapid, and their starting is sometimes at an awkward hour; but they make a welcome change from the lumbering diligences that ply on by-routes. The French engineers have done much to give the country good highways and bridges; and where there still seems room for improvement, one should have seen those roads "before they were made". Steam has helped communications between the coast towns, along a treacherous shore, set with rocky capes, reefs, and shoals, and exposed to the stormy caprices of that sea that has such a hypocritical fame for being blue and beautiful. To Doria, the great Genoese admiral, is attributed a saying that June and July are the only two safe ports of North Africa.

Algiers itself, too fair a city for its old ill-fame, is now familiar to the tourist world; and the beauties have often been described that gave the Arab epithet "a diamond set in emeralds" to this triangle of whitewashed houses rising upon a green hillside, in a rich country backed by snow-crested mountains. This is how the prospect from the sea struck Mr. Grant Allen. "In the fore-

## A VIEW IN OLD ALGIERS

Algiers "is built in the form of an amphitheatre rising tier above tier on the slopes of the Sahel or coast range, where the long line of streets break right and left into scattered suburban residences, whose dazzling white façades and red roofs contrast pleasantly with the surrounding sub-tropical vegetation. There are two distinct quarters, the modern or European on the lower slope and along the shore, with broad streets and squares, warehouses, hotels, and government buildings; and the old Arab town above, with narrow, winding, and dirty passages between the high bare walls of houses, in which narrow grated slits serve for windows." — *Stanford's Compendium* (*Africa, Vol. I*).

Of the old town the late Sir R. L. Playfair says: "'The streets are very narrow, tortuous, and irregular, often ending in a *cul-de-sac*, and are so steep as to be inaccessible for carriages. They are cool and shady, owing to their extreme narrowness. The longest of them is ascended by 497 steps. These streets are joined by many alleys just wide enough to pass through, and the whole labyrinth is terribly confusing to any stranger who endeavours to find his way through it."

OLD ALGIERS

ground a public square, stately with tall date-palms; a snow-white mosque, with big round dome and tile-faced minaret; a splendid French boulevard, arcaded like Paris; a range of vast and costly quays, thronged with the commerce of Marseilles and of Liverpool. In the background the congested Arab town, rising up like a staircase to the huge dismantled citadel of the Deys that crowned the summit of a spur of the Sahel. To the right, the sea; to the left, the smiling slope of Mustapha, frequent with villas, Moorish, French, or English, each lost in the brilliant green of luxuriant gardens. Toulon below, Beyrout above, Torquay and Cannes and Stamboul beyond."

Algiers, from the Sea

Photo. Neurdein Frères

The hotels and shops are chiefly found in the gardened squares and arcaded streets of the lower town, where gay French uniforms of every arm help to colour the native crowds displaying their Moorish costume of baggy breeches, natty jackets, and bright fez caps, or wrapped in flowing burnouses which would be more picturesque if they did not suggest dirty sacks; all in sharp contrast with the European dress, that seems more at home among lines of new building in the Hausmann style of architecture. One must turn up the hillside of tortuous lanes and steep stairways for a sight of the native town once too well known to poor captives, and the quaint bits of architecture that whet one's curiosity to gain admission to interiors which often conceal much rich ornamentation; but the Moor's house is closed against prying eyes as against the sun, all whitewash and bars without, all dim and cool within. There are some parts of the labyrinth, indeed, where gorgeous bare-faced Jewish hussies are only too pressing in their invitations to enter; but these should be on all considerations avoided by unprotected

strangers. The market-place and the business streets are safer resorts, in which one sees the people working at their trades, or taken up with the truly Oriental pastime of doing nothing; or they find amusement and society in the crowded cafés, where thick, foaming coffee is the popular drink, sold at a halfpenny a tiny cup. They are great consumers of tobacco, and the drunkenness of our towns is replaced by ruinous indulgence in hashish. There is plenty of drunkenness indeed in mongrel slums where the vices of two continents mix, which M. Fromentin described nearly half a century ago as a quarter of "suspicious streets, full of suspicious houses, of prowling sailors, of workmen without work, of policemen on the watch, of cosmopolitan noises, and what noises!—emigrants haranguing in rough *patois*, Jews quarrelling, women swearing, Spanish fruitmen singing obscene songs to the accompaniment of the Blanca guitar. In short, one finds here the commonness, the low morals, the parody of our little country villages along with the depravity of large towns, ill-borne poverty, destitution turned to vice, and vice to hideousness." There was room for improvement in this state of things, but still Algiers would be unlike other beautiful cities, if its white walls did not contain much that will not bear the light.

At the top comes the imposing citadel of the Kasbah, beyond which the city is now secured by fortifications of a less showy but more effectual kind. On either side the streets pass out into suburbs and villas embowered among palms, orange gardens, and olive groves. On the heights a mile or two to the east, is the villa quarter of Mustapha, the winter resort of foreigners, who find here, but for spells of chilly rain, a genial climate not so dry and exciting as that of the Riviera, and not so relaxing as that of Madeira.

When one has seen the sights of Algiers—the mosques open to unbelievers who will trouble themselves to take off their shoes; the fine Moorish palace now occupied by the archbishop; the view from the Kasbah; the Museum; the Jardin d'Essai, containing an aristocracy of the world's foliage and flowers; the great parade-ground, on which camels must halt outside the city, making it sometimes like a zoological market-place; and many enchanting spots of the environs—one has a choice of endless excursions, far and near, over a country of ridges, valleys, and plateaux into which the Atlas range splits up at this western end. Close at hand are the hills of the Sahel and the rich plain of the Metidja, where only the hedges of prickly-pear and aloes and other unfamiliar vegetation remind us that we are in Africa. Above the cultivated ground rise grassy slopes, here and there broken into naked knobs and seamed by gullies, in the hollows of which grow thickets of oleanders, lentisk scrub, spiky cactus, and glossy squill bulbs, but for which the scene might sometimes be a bit of Cornwall or Wales rubbed rather bare at its corners and cracks. The great beauty of the country is its profusion of wild flowers, in which coarse marigolds and other yellow petals seem the hardiest; but in spring favourable spots are literally carpeted, sometimes for miles, with irises, many-coloured convolvuluses, scarlet poppies and white lilies, fields of waving asphodel, pimpernels as big as a shilling, mallows like azaleas, tall gladioli, heather in great bushes, and blooms unknown to us, or grown out of all recognition under this forcing sun.

Eastward from Algiers, between the Isser and the Sahel rivers, comes Kabylia, an amphitheatre of grand highlands backed by the Jurjura range, over 7000 feet at its highest point. This is the populous country of the Kabyles, the original Berber inhabitants, who have been driven to its heights by so many

conquerors, but have never wholly lost their national character, though accepting the religion and to some extent the customs of the Arabs, among whom they are found mixed in other parts of the colony. They live here in stone houses, cultivate fields, and are in various ways more like European peasantry, whom they often resemble in having fair skins, even blue eyes and red hair. Their chief mechanic art is in the smelting of metals, notably in the manufacture of jewellery, with which their unveiled women are adorned; and they had also a now discouraged skill in coining false money. The subduing of the Kabyles made hard work for the French, but at last the feeble organization of separate communities that had worn out many attacks on their mountain fastnesses broke down before the persistent efforts of disciplined warfare. A monument of that long struggle is the strong Fort National, in the heart of Kabylia, commanding not only its passes but a magnificent view on the Jurjura range. All guide-books quote the poet Campbell's description of these African Alps. "Scotchman as I am, and much as I love my native country, I declare to you that I felt as if I had never before seen the full glory of mountain scenery. The African highlands spring up to the sight not only with a sterner boldness than our own, but they borrow colours from the sun, unknown to our climate, and they are mantled in clouds of richer dye. The farthest-off summits appeared in their snow like turbans of gigantic Moors, while the nearest masses glowed in crimson and gold in the light of the morning."[1]

Photo. Neurdein Frères
Kabyle Woman, Algeria

It was from the mountain-edged bay of Bougie that the poet looked on this scene, but his enthusiasm would not have diminished had he been able to visit the interior. From Bougie, a very ancient port revived by the French, a railway finds its way up the bed of the Sahel river, and behind the Jurjura range joins

[1] This country shows another scene when lit up by one of the great forest fires, such as G. de Maupassant was passing through for nearly a week, and he is certain that it was the work of incendiary Kabyles, having himself seen it spring up at eight different points in one night. He vividly describes, as the most terrible and entrancing spectacle he had ever seen, how the conflagration ran on in advance through the dry underwood, leaving the great trunks blazing like torches; how whole mountain-sides were laid bare; how upon one smoking slope thousands of trees stood burning themselves out, and from a distance seemed the lights of a great city; how a wave of flame swept across the country, sometimes winding among the heights like a serpent, sometimes bursting up like a volcanic eruption; then gathering like a besieging army round the Gulf of Bougie, whose waters were reddened by the glow, that over many leagues kept the colonists anxiously watching the fiery invasion, and drove beasts and birds from their shelter to the roads, where the traveller had to dash through ranks of flame climbing upwards and downwards—a succession of scenic effects tempting to mixed metaphors, for which the admired author is less to blame than this awkward condensation of his experiences.

the backbone line of Algerian communications. The more direct road from Bougie to the high plain of Setif passes through the famous gorge of Chabet, sunk in sunless gloom 6000 feet below the bare peaks and wooded slopes on either hand, an African Via Mala, than which, says *Murray's Guide*, "it is impossible to conceive anything more sublime and terrible". The road from Algiers to Setif goes by the hardly less famous *Portes de fer*, through walls of black rock fantastically worn into fretwork edges and huge shapes as of animals displayed against the sky-line. There are many such scenes in Algeria, calling forth more admiration from later visitors than from the French columns whose harassed marches made them accessible to easy tourists.

Setif, a commonplace modern town, replacing a Roman one, stands 3600 feet above the sea, and is important as centre of a temperate region, also as a knot of the Algerian railway system, where passengers arriving by the one daily train may have to halt for the night before continuing their journey. The railway goes on eastward over the lofty steppe into which the Atlas here flattens, an open plain where clumps of trees seem to have been stuck out of a toy box. Southward, a branch is given off to Biskra, northward to Philippeville, a French port near the ancient Stora. The main line then takes us by Hammam Meskoutin, one of the natural wonders of Algeria, whose many hot springs are much used as baths by the natives. Hammam Meskoutin was known to the Romans, and their baths are turned to account by the modern establishment, which includes a military hospital and hotel accommodation. There are also iron and sulphur waters, so that this place has become an important spa. The "Accursed Baths", as is the meaning of the name taken from Arab legend, are filled by lime-water that breaks out almost at boiling heat, and over half-petrified cascades falls into basins encased with a deposit of smooth white marble, here and there pushed up into tall cones, like inverted flower-pots, on which shrubs and flowers have rooted themselves, the whole overhung by clouds of steam, forming on a smaller scale a spectacle like the geysers of the Yellowstone Park.

The main line runs on by Guelma to Tunis, giving off an important branch to the port of Bone, one of the most European towns in Algeria, with a good harbour at which is shipped the iron ore of this district. Near it are the slight remains of Hippo, where St. Augustine was bishop. Extensive and imposing Roman ruins still stand at Tebessa, to which a branch runs from the south side of the main line. But in thus approaching the Tunisian frontier, we have for the moment passed by the two chief lions of Eastern Algeria, reached by branches going farther back.

On the branch to Philippeville comes Constantine, the ancient Cirta, Jugurtha's capital, abode of Masinissa and Sophonisba, names better known to schoolboys than to the general reader. No city in the world has a more picturesque situation. The largest inland town of Algeria, with nearly 50,000 people, it may be described as Edinburgh Castle on a gigantic scale, "guarded, as by a serpent rolling at its feet, by the Roumel, the fantastic Roumel, poetic river which one might believe a Dante's dream, hellish river flowing below an abyss red as if burned by eternal flames". It stands on a promontory of caverned cliffs, almost surrounded by the deep ravines, cascades, and rocky archways of the river, forming miles of natural moat, except where a neck joins this "city in the air" to the uplands behind. At first sight, the wonder is how the French were ever able to storm such a fortress; yet history asserts that it has been

besieged and taken over fourscore times. From the bridge at the lower end, a French street runs up through the mass of high-perched dwellings; the Bey's sumptuous palace is now occupied by French officials; the Kasbah is a French barrack; and one of the oldest mosques has been adapted as a Christian cathedral. Every tourist turns aside to Constantine; but it is not a place for winter residence, since, 2000 feet above the sea, it has trying experiences of cold and wet. In the view over the surrounding country, a noticeable point is a little oasis watered by a hot spring so that it breaks into blossom while the plain about is still bare. Another sight is the dizzy precipice, below which hundreds of the inhabitants,

Photo. Neurdein Frères

Constantine: the native quarter on the cliff above the Roumel

trying to let themselves down by ropes, on the French capture of their city, were dashed to pieces on the rocky bed, like many a faithless wife whose punishment was to be thrown over here from a projecting plank. The classical remains once abundant around have been disappearing under the hands of French officials, as has in part the native quarter, whose chief industry is leather-working.

Biskra is another much-visited place, as here, since the railway was made, northerners can easiest get a peep into the Sahara. The branch runs south-westward over the high steppes, a treeless plain faintly tinged with green, that shrinks up into coarse tussocks and tufts of dry jujube shrubs on a stony expanse of sands, reed-grown lakes, and salt crusts, shut in by rugged, naked hills. The brown tents of an Arab *douar* come into view here and there; more rarely the distant roofs of a French village. Not a traveller may be seen for miles upon the road accompanying the railway; then appears a string of the

little donkeys so common in Algeria, looking all the smaller beside a caravan of camels, whose dusky conductors turn to stare at the wonderful "fire-horse" that gives them the go-by. The chief station on the way is Batna, where tourists halt to visit a fine cedar forest on the mountain behind, and the Roman remains of Lambessa, "the Algerian Pompeii", a few miles off, surpassed by more remarkable ruins farther back. There is also in this neighbourhood a very ancient monument, the Medrassen, which, like the so-called "Tomb of the Christian Woman" near Blidah, appears to have been a sepulchre of Numidian kings, its massive construction and form of a truncated cone suggesting the pyramids of Egypt.

A Street in Old Biskra

Photo. Neurdein Frères

Batna is a modern place, commanding the passage through the mountains, beyond which opens the Sahara. As he thus draws near the true desert, a traveller may be taken aback to find hot-water tins put into the railway carriages, a winter journey being often chilly on these heights; then soon he will descend into unpleasant warmth if it be his chance to meet a scorching wind from the south. El Kantara is looked on as the gate of the desert, a cleft of rocky heights just wide enough to let road, railway, and river pass through side by side. "Alpine scenery and tropical vegetation" are the strangely mingled characteristics of El Kantara, named from its Roman bridge. Here one meets the fruit-bearing date, grown farther north as an unproductive curiosity. Emerging from the wild cliffs, the first one sees of the desert is a long oasis skirting the rapid river, a wood of palm and fruit trees, in spring gay with pink and white blossoms dappling the green, that hides its "red", "black", and "white villages", over which rise square towers for watchers to guard the crops. If this prospect seem so fair to us approaching from the rich coast, how

must it strike eyes sore from long marches over blinding barrenness! It is succeeded by a waste of sand and stones, low dunes and glistening strips of salt; but one has still to pass a ridge of red ragged hills, beyond which at last the open desert stretches away to the horizon.

On the south of this range, foot-hills of the Aures mountains, lies Biskra, a place that at first upsets the stranger's preconceptions of an oasis as a sort of unroofed hothouse, when the hotel omnibus takes him into a square of smart buildings with shops and side streets. This French Biskra, half garrison town, half health resort, is indeed only the head of a kite that has a tail of Arab and negro villages, straggling for two or three miles through a wood of dusty palms, fruit-trees, vegetable beds, and fields of corn, which come into ear in January; each plot marked off by mud walls, ditches, and runnels of clear water keeping all this greenery alive. Beside it are the banks of a river as big as the Thames at London, with often not a drop of water in it. The irrigation water of the oasis is led in conduits from a distance, or raised from artesian wells, by which the French engineers are extending cultivation upon the waste of caked and flaked soil beyond, where nothing grows naturally but a little dry scrub and pale yellow flowerets; or one may come to a clump of dead trees dolefully shrouding broken walls and empty huts to show how man has been worsted in his struggle with nature. The climate of Biskra is called rainless, yet in spring may come the rare experience of a wet day, tempting one to turn out and bask in the refreshing clouds. The oasis will before long contain nearly 200,000 palm-trees, carefully counted as a basis of taxation; and it supports a population equal to that of a large town, while this whole district, known as the Ziban country, is fairly well inhabited through its reclaimed spots.

The dry climate makes Biskra a haven for delicate lungs; and now that the railway brings them in two days from Algiers, it has a number of winter visitors who find here good hotels, a casino, and European society on the edge of a wilderness. For sights they have a beautiful garden, in which a French gentleman showed what richness of vegetation may be here nursed, and the less Eden-like "distraction" of the Arab cafés, with their excruciating music, where dancing-girls from a far inland tribe earn a disreputable dowry, borne about them in the form of strings of coins and other ornaments. The market-place itself offers a lively spectacle for untravelled eyes, with its show of fruit-stalls and curious native wares, of motley features and costumes, of tall camels hobbled by having one leg tied up, perhaps of an ostrich led along by a string, of half-naked children playing games very much like ours, and stopping laughingly to beg of the stranger, in spite of printed notices that mendacity, like a great many other things, is formally forbidden by the French police. A tramway takes one out to a hot bath of the desert; and one can have a wide view by climbing the sunburnt mountain ridge close at hand. It is a two-hours' drive to the neighbouring oasis, in which a richly-decorated mosque, said to be the oldest in Africa, enshrines the tomb of Sidi Okba, the Arab conqueror of this region, making a goal of pilgrimage for believers of the same temper as that fierce saint, who was the founder of Kairwan. Adventurous spirits may launch farther out into the desert, at the risk of being caught in a sand-storm, or by robbers if they get too far from a French post.

The railway is proposed to be carried on to Tuggurt, nearly 150 miles

south; then some day it may put Timbuctoo within the reach of tourist programmes. South of Tuggurt lies the large oasis of Wargla, which calls itself the most ancient city of the Sahara, "a green island in a sea of fire", where the French water-works have doubled its tale of palm-trees. Not far from it are the seven towns of the Beni M'zab, a sect of Puritan Moslems, who form an industrious republic at home, and are found wandering far over the colony to seek their fortunes abroad. These and other oases are now incorporated in French territory, of which Tuggurt was once the frontier town; and France's claims reach across the Sahara to its Soudan possessions, to which M. Foureau's expedition marched in 1899, taking more than a year on the way.

Another oasis garrison below the Atlas is El Aghouat, that, 300 miles south of Algiers, stands high in the desert, often visited by snow in winter, so that it would not attract sun-seekers even if it were more accessible. The military road to it crosses two chains of the Atlas, between which is a wide waste plain broken by Shotts or salt lakes, scenery tempting only to adventurous travellers. But the mountainous coast westward from Algiers may be traversed by railway; and here are many places of tourist note.

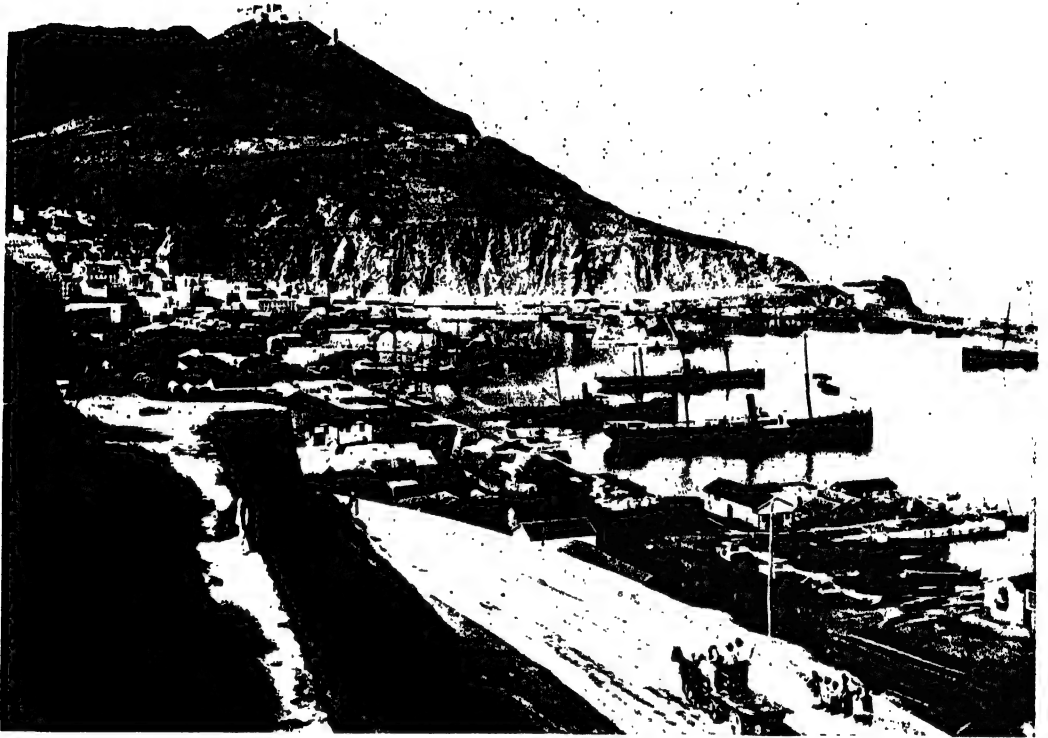
The first town in this direction, when the railway has crossed the Metidja plain, is Blidah, its air perfumed by blooming orange groves and rose gardens, often visited for its own beauties and for the sights of the neighbourhood—the wild Chiffa Gorge, haunted by monkeys; the sacred wood of hoary olives enshrining Arab tombs; and that ancient "Tomb of the Christian Woman" already mentioned. "What Sorrento is to a cabbage garden, that is Blidah to Sorrento!" exclaims Mr. A. A. Knox, a traveller not given to easy enthusiasm. Hence, one can turn aside to Cherchel on the coast, which, like so many other Algerian towns, is built beside the remains of a Roman city; and in the other direction there is a branch by Medeah, a high perched fortress that also was a Roman stronghold. The main line takes one near Hammam R'Irha, which is more than a halting-place for foreigners. Among the glens and forests of the Zakkar mountains, a large hotel has been built to tempt invalids to hot springs which resemble those of Bath, and have long been not less renowned among the natives. Unfortunately this establishment has not proved altogether a success, the climate being somewhat too bracing in winter, while the class of pleasure-seekers attracted in summer rather by a gambling-table, did not mix well with the sober patients whom it was sought to draw here from the fogs of England.

The railway now follows the valley of the Cheliff, Algeria's largest river, that, rising in the central plain between the two Atlas ranges, turns to flow parallel with the sea, which it reaches near Mostaganem after a course of nearly 250 miles. The valley, shut in by hills, has a poor rainfall, but by irrigation works and by reclaiming its malarious swamps, the French have succeeded in making much of it fertile. Its chief town on the main line is Orleansville, a name which, like many others, reminds us how this conquest was mainly carried out in the reign of Louis Philippe.

We now reach the western province of Oran, a dry and mountainous land, whose chief export is the halfa-grass growing rank and hardy on the heights, below which the fruitful Tell contracts to a narrower strip than in the east. The terminus of the main line is at Oran, the second city of Algeria, and its oldest European settlement, for this came to be taken by the Spaniards at the

beginning of the sixteenth century, and though they were driven out previous to the French conquest, the main element in its population of some 100,000 is still Spanish. Oran is picturesquely situated and strongly fortified, but has not many attractions for strangers except as being the nearest port to the Spanish coast. Besides its own double harbour, there is a fine naval anchorage a few miles off.

Here we have not reached the end of Algeria, which has still many leagues of rock-bound coast and wild mountains before touching the troubled frontier of Morocco. Near this, some hundred miles south-west of Oran, there is one town, which Mr. Knox pronounces "the crown of Algeria", much surpassing

Photo. Neurdein Frères

The Port of Oran, Algeria

the famed Granada, which it resembles in its lofty site, in its magnificent remains of the past, and in its beautiful environs, where roses and orchards, woods of stately ash-trees, rushing waterfalls, huge stalactite caves, and sometimes sheets of snow make one half forget that this is sun-dried Africa. Tlemcen, the Roman Pomaria, was once a luxurious Moorish capital, that has had many masters, but standing inland, fell into decay when the only thriving trade of the country was sea-piracy; and it has sunk to a town of not more than 30,000 people, its charms too much unknown, even now that they may be reached by a long, slow railway trip from Algiers. Its mosques contain the most beautiful effects of Arabesque ornamentation, far finer than in the Alhambra, says Mr. Knox; and among the ruins of successive grandeur around the present town, there is a tall minaret, going to decay, that five centuries ago might have claimed to be one of the world's wonders.

In this rapid run over Algeria, nothing has been said about the wild beasts for the slaughter of which M. Tartarin set out from Tarascon with so much ado. Like that heavily-armed hero, we should find that the days of Jules Gerard are over. The lion has been driven into the recesses of the Atlas. One may still get a shot at a panther or a boar now and then, in the mountains near the coast; and hyenas and jackals come prowling about the villages. But in the settled parts, at least, the would-be sportsman, for making havoc among the smallest game, must take out a license from the authorities, who here exhibit a truly French devotion to "stamped paper".

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## MOROCCO

The corner of Africa which lies nearest Europe is most effectually cut off from it by bitter memories and religious antipathy, while it is hardly less isolated from the rest of the Moslem world, to which this *Moghreb-el-Aksa*—the far west of Islam—bears much the same relation as the United States to England. The followers of the Prophet here formed an empire that extended into Spain and flourished for centuries on both sides of the Mediterranean, the chief seat of their power being Cordova, whose Caliph became independent of Damascus and Baghdad, as his successor still is of Constantinople. In time Christian chivalry made head against the intruders, but not till the age of Columbus were they driven out of Spain, leaving at Granada and elsewhere such famous monuments of Moorish splendour. Nearly a century later, Sebastian, that royal knight-errant of Portugal, made a disastrous attempt to carry the cross into Africa; then the Moorish empire was left to its own decay. How much it had fallen from its old estate was shown in the nineteenth century, when France and more recently Spain inflicted on it humiliating defeats. Spain has long held outposts on its hostile coast.

The Turkish domination that overspread the rest of North Africa did not extend to Morocco, still governed by a native Sultan, who, as a Shereef or descendant of the Prophet, and as heir to the Caliph of Cordova, is head of Church as well as State. His spiritual authority, indeed, has been counterbalanced by that of the Grand Shereef of Wazan, a sort of hereditary Pope; but a recent holder of this office seems to have lessened the veneration it once had, by his latitudinarian leanings towards unbelievers; he took to wearing European dress, favouring modern improvements, and as a crown of scandal married an English wife. The numerous claimants to descent from Mohammed are the only hereditary aristocracy, who at least enjoy this social advantage that no one can well curse their ancestry, the commonest term of vulgar abuse; and many of them profit by their birth to levy tribute on the charity of the faithful. The Sultan's power is a despotism limited by religion; however good his intentions may be, they are hide-bound in the ignorant fanaticism of his subjects and the intrigues of his ministers, with whom corruption is the soul of policy. The late Sultan was understood to have taken steps towards improvement, by admitting intercourse with European powers, and by organizing an army under a Scotch officer, Kaid Maclean. His successor, Abdul Aziz, had youth and inexperience against him; and his supposed sympathy with innovations went to

provoke chronic revolt, which gathered head under his brother Muley Hafid, till, in a pitched battle, the latter succeeded in capturing the uneasy throne. Since then, he was besieged in Fez by rebellious tribes, till a French column came to his relief; and any day some fresh outbreak may give cause for interference by the rival powers that keep watch over the weakness of Morocco.

The backbone of Morocco is the mighty Atlas range, bearing the name of that legendary giant who upheld the world on his shoulders, as shown in the frontispiece of early map collections through which the word has become so familiar to us. In Algeria this system falls away in a labyrinth of chains and

Photo. Lévy, Paris

Market Scene, Tetuan, Morocco

plateaux; in Morocco it forms a wall of true mountain summits, one at least appearing to be over 15,000 feet. On the south-east side of its oblique line it steeply faces an expanse of desert and oases, nominally belonging to the Sultan, whose domain can thus be said to spread over more than 300,000 square miles. On the north lies Morocco proper, a beautiful country of rich plains and valleys, the best endowed by nature of all the North African seaboards. Nearly the whole of the land is fertile, watered by heavy winter rains and perennial rivers, whose sand-choked mouths, however, bar them to navigation. The climate, though warm, is dry and healthy, suitable to the productions of southern Europe. On the uplands there are great forests, chiefly of oaks, including the valuable cork-oak, that higher up become replaced by pines, and on the western spurs of the Atlas by a tree peculiar to this district, the bright green Argan, bearing all the year round a yellow olive-like fruit which makes excel-

lent food for cattle, while oil is extracted from its kernel. The olive, orange, almond, fig, and other fruit-trees flourish, some being native, others introduced from abroad. The same may be said of vegetables. The plough is in use for raising crops of native grain, barley and wheat the principal ones, except on the Atlantic coast, where maize has taken the chief place. The country is well adapted for stock-breeding, and has numerous herds of sheep, cattle, and goats, degenerate through want of breeding and insufficiency of fodder. A good breed of horses has been kept up in some parts, but in the north at least mules are more generally useful. The mountains are probably rich in unworked minerals; as it is, Morocco supplies this corner of Africa with copper utensils. It has preserved some of its old industries, notably the leather working for which its name is known all over Europe; and hides, both raw and manufactured, are prominent among its exports. But in spite of these natural advantages, it is a poor land through its weak government and fanatically ignorant people.

The population, variously estimated from less than three to over nine millions, are mainly Arabs and Berbers, the latter in the larger proportion. On the coast can sometimes be noted what appears to be a far-off modification of feature and complexion due to the Vandal invasion. There is a considerable strain of negro blood through the black slaves, treated not unkindly, as Moslem kindness goes, and more often than not able to gain their freedom in the end. Considerably over 100,000 Jews are settled here, carrying on trade and business in the face of a scornful hatred, to which their fathers were driven from Spain, as from the fire to the frying-pan. Now that Christian slavery has been abolished, there is still a small infusion of white renegades, who are usually runaway Spanish convicts, French deserters, or other undesirable converts. He must, indeed, be a sorry Christian who throws in his lot with a people moved to scowling, spitting, and cursing at the very sight of an infidel. This hatred is particularly strong among the descendants of the Moors expelled from Spain, who can never forget their ancient mastery; and of all Christians the Spaniards are most strongly hated. It is said that some families keep the keys of their forefathers' houses across the strait, as the nuns of Syon House, when settled at Lisbon, could show a Duke of Northumberland the key of his Thames-side mansion. In most parts of the country a Christian needs an escort to protect him from abuse or violence, even in the towns, where the Jews are confined to their own ill-famed quarter after sunset, restricted to a peculiar dress, incapable of giving evidence, and bound to walk barefoot in public places. What toleration they enjoy is enforced by government; and they would certainly welcome conquest by any Christian power, many of them already glad to enjoy foreign protection as consuls or adopted citizens.

The fervent zeal of these Moslems were better directed to mending their own ways; perhaps the bigotry which finds its line of least resistance in hatred of outsiders, is partly inspired by a suspicion of Christian superiority in material matters. The country is hopelessly backward and enfeebled. Its government is carried on by corruption and oppression, hand in hand. Horrible tortures are used to extract the secret of treasures which men may well be suspected of burying away. Crime and vice run rampant in spite of cruel punishments and loathsome prisons. It is not safe to be out after dark, and in many or most districts people go about armed to the teeth. To their pernicious indulgence in hashish, true believers often add Christian drunkenness. As well as tobacco,

tea is a more harmless luxury among them, green tea preferred, drunk with a great deal of sugar and mint. Arab physicians were once celebrated, but their art has here sunk to ineffectual quackery, so that even a Christian hakim's religion will be winked at by sufferers for the sake of his advice; then he may be required to take his own prescription as a guarantee of good faith, and if the patient die on his hands, he may have an account to settle with vengeful relatives. Polygamy is not common; but women are jealously guarded, seen out-of-doors only in their shroud-like veils, while African Peeping Toms may catch more open glimpses of them as they disport themselves on the parapeted flat house-tops. Out of the towns one seldom finds a solitary house unless in the shape of a strong mountain castle sheltering several families. People huddle their hovels or tents together for protection. Everywhere are found villages and towns gone to ruin in the general decadence. The best road of the country is the stretch of smooth firm sand along a great part of its coast. The half-empty rivers are crossed by fords and ferries, or by skins blown up to make floats; where bridges have been built they are not always kept in repair. The only postmen are naked couriers, and there are no post-offices but the foreign ones at Tangier. A railway has hitherto been looked on as a diabolical innovation, among the dethroned Sultan's offences being his reported consent to the construction of one between Fez and Mequinez. A natural drawback is a want of good ports, the openings of the coast being commonly choked by surf and sand-banks. There are, however, several open roadsteads, where a considerable trade is shared by England, France, Germany, and Spain. The inland trade has been somewhat crippled since the French came into possession of Timbuctoo, this through no fault of Morocco, which has herself to thank for most of her misfortunes.

The country seems incapable of defence against any scientifically-armed power. The Sultan's small standing army or big body-guard, even when swollen by an irregular militia, has hitherto had all it could do in repressing chronic rebellions. It is significant of the state of political cohesion in outlying districts that the late Sultan's death on a march had to be concealed till arrival at a coast town, lest the tribes should take this excuse for rising upon his soldiery Several foreign officers have been in turn engaged to train a more efficient army; but hitherto the mass of Morocco's warriors have commended themselves rather to the eye of an artist than of a general.[1] The revenues of the state are simply

[1] "They have really a very noble appearance these handsome Semites, with their proudly modelled heads, their expressive features, these sinewy men with impassive faces, concealing beneath their cold dignity the ferocity of a wild beast. Seated on their high saddles of embroidered velvet, they flourish with bare arms their long guns begirt with silver rings, scarcely touching the gold chased stirrups with the extremity of their naked feet. They are dressed in *caftans* of purple, saffron, amaranth, 'bleu de roi' colour; in silk burnouses of pale-green, sea-green, reddish hue, with hoods half thrown back over their turbans, and enveloped in the flowing veils of their fine muslin haiks. Their horses, accoutred in velvet, gold, and silk, prance, rear, foam, and refuse to form into line. All at once the young chief utters a shrill, prolonged cry; the riders plunge their spurs into the flanks of their steeds; and these, rushing along at a furious pace, foaming and their manes floating in the wind, dash past us like a flash of lightning, carried away in a vertiginous gallop. You hear a clank of arms, a loud panting of beasts, and in the rapid whirl of those white phantoms you just catch through a cloud of dust floating burnouses, fluttering gauzes, rose, blue, purple, garnet fringes of caftans, bronzed arms, gleaming gun-barrels, fierce faces with flashing eyes. Suddenly the riders throw themselves back till their heads touch the croups of their horses, utter with one accord a hoarse cry, fire off their guns together, and by an abrupt movement halt in the midst of their mad career."—G. Montbard's *A Travers le Maroc*.

The above picture, of course, refers to a holiday occasion, when picked cavaliers perform the "powder play" that is a favourite ceremony of honour or welcome. Moorish soldiers are oftener described as raggedly dressed according to each man's fancy and poverty. The common material for dress is white, which gives the impression of a crowd of ghosts in flowing robes and turbans. "The prevailing tone", says Mr. Cunningham Graham, "is

what can be wrung out of the people, most of it sticking to official fingers. Morocco has some coins of its own, such as the small copper *flus*, but Spanish silver is used in the north, where indeed French and English money circulates.

Nemours is the westernmost port of Algeria; then beyond the Muluya river comes Melilla, a Spanish settlement on the Morocco shore, lately made notable by mines to the south, which have cost Spain a war with the fierce natives. Here the point Ras el Deir forms the eastern horn of a bay edged by the savage rocky Riff coast, on which hardly a sign of life appears beyond here and there a domed tomb, while behind are hidden the retreats of those notorious Riff pirates, who no longer dare attack ships at sea, but woe to the wrecked stranger that falls into their hands! The Sultan's authority is hardly recognized among those bare hills, where "every man's gun is his law"—a dismal contrast to the green shores of Spain opposite, dotted with white towns and villages. The Spaniards hold two fortified convict stations on the African coast, and at the farther end of the bay Ceuta, a small town which has been proposed to us as an exchange for Gibraltar. Near this, Spain has given back to Morocco the more flourishing port Tetuan, whose trade is much in the hands of Jews, expelled from their old Spanish settlements.

On the strait of Gibraltar, under the wing of Cape Spartel, lies Tangier, the African town most accessible to Englishmen, and the gate of Morocco for Europe, its roadstead being the best harbour on the coast. Of the few thousand Christians living in Morocco, five-sixths are concentrated here. Had this remained the British possession it was for a short time, as dowry of Charles II's Portuguese bride, it would now be a thriving health-resort, thanks to a sunny winter climate, and to Atlantic breezes so tempering the heat in summer that Gibraltar people run over for a breath of fresh air. As it is, the hotels and villas of Tangier bring a considerable contingent of European visitors to spend the winter, under the protection of their consuls; and this is the one place in Morocco that shows signs of improvement,—a paved street, tolerable roads, electric light, and some attention to sanitary care. But there is still a great difference between the flowery suburb chiefly affected by foreigners, and the native town with its foul narrow lanes, its repulsive beggars, its miserable prison, whose inmates are fed by charity, its mosques, at which no one may stare without risk of provoking scowling abuse, its great *soko* or market-place, and other more lively than savoury scenes of Moorish or Jewish life and local colour. Such sights of this "cardboard city" soon pall on a stranger, who must not look for bands, promenades, or other watering-place amenities. Then to kill time he has the resource of sport, from partridge-shooting to pig-sticking—even a pack of English foxhounds has been set up—or at least of rambling about a pretty country of hills and valleys, gay in spring with rosy oleanders and other blossoms, and of healthy down towards Cape Spartel with fine views upon the Spanish coast and the mountains of Morocco.

grayish-white, men's clothes, and houses, towns, bushes, tall umbelliferæ, nodding like ghosts in autumn, are all white; white sands upon the shore, and in the Sahara, and over all a white and saddening light, as if the sun was tired with shining down for ever on the unchanging life. In no part of Morocco I have visited does the phrase 'gorgeous east' have the least meaning, and this is always noted by the wandering Easterns, who find the country dull and lacking colour compared to Asia." Under various headgear the head is closely shaven all but one or more tufts. The prevalence of ringworm or scab, indeed, often saves the trouble of shaving, and bare-headed youth early grows inured to the sun. A common prank with Moorish boys is to break a brick upon their thick pates, which they butt against each other as a favourite form of fighting. It is interesting to hear that some of these youngsters are as fond of football and hockey as their betters of circus horsemanship and letting off powder.

Lonely ramblers will do well not to extend their excursions too far beyond the town. For a time the country in the background came to be dominated by the brigand chief Raisuli, whose power was not checked till the Sultan's forces had been goaded on to action by an international naval demonstration.

For longer excursions an escort is desirable; and indeed one can hardly penetrate the country without licence and furtherance of the authorities. With soldiers to clear a way for the hated stranger by free use of sticks and knotted thongs, he may visit some of the many dwindling towns of Morocco, where he must put up with such quarters as he can find, his own tent more comfortable

Photo, Lévy, Paris

Street Scene, Tangier, Morocco

than the vermin-entertaining *fondaks*, or caravanserais, that sometimes show fine ornamentation rotting among dirt. A guest-house or tent is, indeed, among the institutions of every village; and strangers are provided with a *muna*, or offering of food, for which a return will be expected in some form, but not even the hope of gain will always relax the scowling attitude of the people towards intruding infidels.

Fez, the chief city, seems an epitome of the whole empire's state. This was once the "Athens of Africa", a place of half a million inhabitants, famous in Europe too for its schools, libraries, and commerce. Now it is doubtful if it contains 100,000 people in its narrow streets, often so shut in overhead as almost to be called tunnels, and closed at night by the gates of its different quarters. Even its special manufacture of "Fez" caps has gone to Tunis, or to Leghorn. Its great mosque, that holds over 20,000 people, is closed to unbelievers, though it makes an open sanctuary for criminals and bankrupts. Lying below

picturesque hills, among blooming groves and gardens, and surrounded by dilapidated fortifications, the double city, Old Fez and New Fez, has a striking appearance from outside, but when entered is found to be a sorry skeleton of its old magnificence, the remains of which are not always revealed to a stranger's eye.[1]

A whole quarter of New Fez is taken up by the Sultan's palace, which appears to be more distinguished by size than by splendour; but it is not often that critical eyes have access to this maze of dilapidated buildings and court-yards. The harem is said to have room for 1000 women. The uneasy despot, whose badge of rank is a crimson and gold umbrella held over him, and who from his *entourage*, at least, commands idolatrous obeisance, has other palaces near the city, and residences at Mequinez, at Morocco, and at Rabat. Mequinez, to the west of Fez, though a much smaller town, is described as better built, partly from the remains of the Roman Volubilis, with some broader and cleaner streets, and with a palace adorned with magnificent mosaic work, but it too has dismal stretches of ruin and decay within the walls in which, it is said, Christian captives have been immured alive. Morocco, the godfather of the empire, now its second city, lies far to the south-west at the foot of the Atlas Mountains, where it has rarely been visited by modern travellers, who bring reports of its remarkable minaret, like the famous Giralda at Seville, and of its still flourishing leather work, by which many orientals, even as far as India, are supplied with their favourite yellow slippers. Carpets, embroidery, silk stuffs, arms, gewgaw ornaments, and pottery are other industries carried on in these towns, where fragments of noble architecture and rich decoration show the once high state of art among citizens now possessed by a religious dread of painting and photography, while of all the conveniences of civilization they show a strange admiration for clocks, half a dozen being considered a choice ornament for a single room, and the tombs of saints sometimes enriched with dozens, all going wrong for want of the desecrating skill of an infidel to regulate them. As to the other innumerable but seldom considerable inland towns, there is little to be said but that many of them seem to be named by the day of the week on which a market is, or was, held there.

[1] "The first impression is that of an immense city fallen into decrepitude and slowly decaying. Tall houses, which seemed formed of houses piled one upon the other, all falling to pieces, cracked from roof to base, propped up on every side, with no opening save some loophole in the shape of a cross; long stretches of street, flanked by two high bare walls like the walls of a fortress; streets running up hill and down, encumbered with stones and the ruins of fallen buildings, twisting and turning at every thirty paces; every now and then a long covered passage, dark as a cellar, where you have to feel your way; blind alleys, recesses, dens full of bones, dead animals, and heaps of putrid matter: the whole steeped in a dim and melancholy twilight. In some places the ground is so broken, the dust so thick, the smell so horrible, the flies are so numerous, that we have to stop to take breath. In half an hour we have made so many turns that if our road could be drawn it would form an arabesque as intricate as any in the Alhambra. Here and there we hear the noise of a mill, a murmur of water, the click of a weaver's loom, a chanting of nasal voices, which we are told come from a school of children; but we see nothing and no one anywhere. We approach the centre of the city; people become more numerous; the men stop to let us pass, and stare astonished; the women turn back, or hide themselves; the children scream and run, the larger boys growl and shake their fists at a distance, mindful of the soldiers and their sticks. We see fountains richly ornamented with mosaics, arabesque doors, arched courts, some few remains of Arab architecture in decay. Every moment we find ourselves in darkness, entering one of the many covered passages. We come to one of the principal streets, about six feet wide, and full of people who crowd us. The soldiers shout, and push and strike in vain, and at last make a sort of bulwark of their bodies by forming a circle around us and clasping hands, face outwards. There are a thousand eyes upon us; we can scarcely breathe in the press and heat, and move slowly on, stopping every minute to give passage to a Moor on horseback, or a veiled lady on a camel, or an ass with a load of bleeding sheep's heads. To the right and left are crowded bazaars; inn courtyards encumbered with merchandise; doors of mosques, through which we catch glimpses of arcades in perspective, and figures prostrate in prayer. All along the street there is nothing to be seen but silent forms in white hoods, moving like spectres."
—E. de Amicis' *Morocco*.

Beyond the "Pillars of Hercules" that marked the western limits of the classical world, there are several ports, or rather roadsteads, on the Atlantic coast. The first of these, Arzeilla, has gone to ruin, but steamers call at Laraiche and at Rabat, farther south, where they may have to wait for a day or two before boats can come off to them. Rabat, with a fine mosque minaret and the remains of an ancient aqueduct as its lions, is a place of some importance on the south bank of a river, which admits only small craft. Across the estuary lies the decayed town of Sallee, whose "rovers" made it a name of dread to mariners in Robinson Crusoe's day. The next ports are Dar-el-beida, better known to us under the Spanish form Casa Blanca, Azamor, Mazagan, and Saffi, this last the nearest to Morocco City, all of them outlets for the produce of the country. Then comes Mogador, where some years ago an hotel was set up with the view of making it a rival to Tangier as a health-resort, but this enterprise proved unsuccessful, though the place still attracts sportsmen, who find a French hostelry not far off. The most southerly port is Agadir, named Santa Cruz when it was in the hands of the Portuguese and the Spaniards.

Agadir lies at the western end of the Atlas Mountains, which make the salient feature of Morocco. Not yet thoroughly known to competent explorers, this long range is at different points found to consist of several parallel chains, the chief ones named by European geographers the Great Atlas, and the Anti-Atlas to the south of it. The Great Atlas appears a line of limestone peaks having a general height of 12,000 feet, on which snow lies at least for a great part of the year; and some points are believed to be possibly higher than Mont Blanc, with a more uncertain snow-line. No glaciers have been found, and it is doubtful if the snow be perennial at any point. Passes over this range have been ascertained as being from 8000 to 9000 feet above the sea. There are believed to be lions in some of the cedar forests of the slopes; and the *moufflon* thrives on the heights. The north side gets much the larger share of rain, and this side is accordingly better wooded, the southern face being wilder and barer, giving birth only to intermittent streams, while from the north flow the Muluya, the Sebu, the Bu-Regreg, the Um-er-Ribia, and the Tensift, which are the chief rivers of Morocco. Between the Atlas and the Anti-Atlas is a half desert basin through which the Sus alternately trickles and rushes to the Atlantic; and here also rises the Draa, that, after breaking across the fantastic rocks of the Anti-Atlas, turns westward through a shallow lagoon and a marshy plain to form on maps the southern frontier of Morocco, beyond which, opposite her Canary Islands, Spain claims dominion over the sandhills of the coast. To the Sus province attention has been lately called by the *Tourmaline's* filibustering attempt to provide its rebellious tribes with arms, which led to a fray between English adventurers and the Sultan's troops. Since then, the Spanish Sahara to the south, between Cape Juby and Cape Bogador, has been invaded by a band of French adventurers, under a self-styled "Emperor", seeking one knows not what profit in this desolate region.

The Sultan's authority is but feeble beyond the Great Atlas, where the inhabitants of the oases and less sterile valleys are found living in strong *kasbahs*, or fortified masses of building; and frequent watch-towers tell of ever-expected raids and feuds, Arab against Berber, tribe against tribe, neighbour against neighbour. Mr. W. B. Harris, on his journey to Tafilet, stayed at a house whose hospitable master made him eat his meal crouching under the

parapet of the roof, for fear of attracting a volley from the family over the way. He saw only one village that was not fortified. Some of the castles were of a solid architecture which suggested to him Phœnician influences lingering here; the Romans appear not to have crossed the Atlas. One notable fortress, its towers and buttresses picturesquely backed by snowy peaks, he describes as a central citadel not unlike the Tower of London, round which clustered other

Gateway to the Inner Part of the Kasbah-el-Glawa. (From a photograph by Lord Loch.)

large edifices, built of well-squared stone blocks, all surrounded by a towered wall. Some of these gatherings may be called towns, in which a little quarter of industrial Jews will be found; and the smoky interiors, though poorly enough furnished as a rule, occasionally show signs of decorative skill. The people are chiefly Berbers, among whom Mr. Harris praises those of the Dads valley as the best looking and best disposed he had met anywhere in Morocco, much superior to the arrogant and aggressive Arab horsemen with whom they live in chronic hostility, not to speak of local factions that are united for the

moment on the approach of the common enemy. Their numerous castles extend far along the valley, set among well-irrigated gardens, which supply the dried figs and turnips that are their chief fare, dates not flourishing till the Anti-Atlas has been crossed.

Beyond these mountains, in the south-west of Morocco, is the large oasis group called Tafilet, the extent of which Mr. Harris guesses as between 400 and 500 square miles. This is the cradle of the dynasty, yet when the late Sultan visited the tombs of his ancestors here he had to be escorted by 40,000 men, and it took him a whole summer to make the journey, the hardships of which hastened his death on the way back. The ancient capital, Sijilmassa, has gone to ruin; but numerous enclosed villages are built in what seems a great forest of date-palms, whose fruit, gathered by skilful climbers, may be seen piled in heaps, over acres of ground, turned over like hay to dry in the sun.[1] The dates of Tafilet are as renowned as the oranges of Jaffa; and the best qualities find their way to England over hot, sandy plains, snowy passes, and stormy seas. Under the shade of the palms grow lucerne for winter fodder; then the oasis is diversified by grain fields and vegetable gardens.

To the north-west of Tafilet lies the smaller oasis Figuig, a noted station of caravans from the south, which the French are bent on diverting through their own adjacent territory. Here is the sore point that may any day prove fatal to the turbulent independence of Morocco. On the excuse of putting down local disorder, France has been extending her power on the edge of the desert, and seems only awaiting some favourable occasion for avowing designs of annexation. The inhabitants, on their part, are hardly to be restrained by the Sultan from rising upon these aggressive neighbours. They have already provoked a combat in which French artillery soon brought them to submission; but any day may arise a more strenuous contest, with result little doubtful, if Morocco looks in vain for aid to Britain, that seems to have let go what influence it had in this corner of Africa, or to the Germans, who for some time have been quietly taking a larger share in its trade.

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## THE ATLANTIC ISLANDS

Opposite the end of the Atlas chain, 360 miles across the Atlantic, Madeira's volcanic ridge stands up to the height of 6000 feet, clad in luxuriant greenery that fills its fissured ravines and edges its precipitous cliffs, washed by the warm Atlantic waters. This island, 30 miles long, with two smaller adjacent ones, has been occupied by the Portuguese since the dawn of geographical discovery. The woods, chiefly chestnut, that gave its name, are still thick on the upper levels, while the lower slopes have been tamed by a rich culture, which supports some 135,000 people. The capital, Funchal, with 20,000 inhabitants, is beautifully situated on its harbour bay, and has a certain stir as a steamboat station and international rendezvous of invalids. French and

[1] "Some kinds are merely sun-dried and left single; others are crushed into solid masses, which are sewn up in basketwork for transport; while others again, used by the poor natives when travelling, are crushed to the shape and size of turkeys' eggs, and are easier to carry in this manner. On one occasion, travelling in Morocco, I was given one of these solidified date balls by a native of Tafilet, who was journeying to Tangier on his way to take ship to Mecca. Its appearance and feel was that of a stone, its weight that of lead!"—W. B. Harris's *Tafilet*.

English are much spoken here, as well as Portuguese, foreign money passing at least as readily as the national currency of *milreis*, that must be an education in arithmetic. It may be remembered how Mark Twain and his friends were appalled at the sight of a breakfast bill made out in figures which seemed fit for a king's ransom, a thousand *reis* being worth no more than about 4*s*. 4*d*. The environs of the town are dotted with white *quintas*, or villas, for the accommodation of strangers, who find here also good hotels and some show of "distractions", besides the pastime of making excursions into the mountain paradise behind. The climate does not dispose to exertion; but up the heights

Photo. Photochrom Co., Ltd.

The Bay of Funchal, Madeira

one can be carried in hammocks *à la conquistador*, or down them be rapidly drawn in light sledges on runners, a career recalling the fearful joy of Alpine toboggan courses. A piece of mountain railway facilitates the ascent to a high-perched church which makes a point of tourist pilgrimage, and steam launches are used for trips along the enchanting shore-line.

The most famous production of Madeira was its lordly wine, which in our fathers' time underwent a blight that put it out of the market. The planters took largely to sugar-growing; but now they seem to be returning to wine-culture, in which, however, they will have to reckon with the medical care of a new generation of customers, to whom this and other Lusitanian vintages have left a bitter legacy of lithic acid. In another respect our doctors are no longer such good friends to Madeira, whose warm, moist, and equable climate, with a winter mean of 60° F., was once in such high esteem for the treatment of consumption, and still makes a retreat in which "the feeble flickering lamp

burns longer than in a more stimulating and tonic air". In its early stages, at least, the fell disease that drives so many Britons to more genial climates is now combated rather by cold air, so long as pure and dry; and Madeira is pronounced too relaxing in many cases. What it has lost as a health-resort has been gained by the Canaries, some 250 miles to the south.

The Canaries, the "Fortunate Islands", perhaps the Hesperides of old story, belong to Spain, which is as much as to say that they are not very fortunate in their condition, though of late some improvement has met the needs of foreign visitors who here amid charming scenery find the best winter

Photo. Photochrom Co., Ltd

The Peak of Teneriffe, from Icod

climate, at once warm and not too enervating, to be gained in a week's sail from London. Black's Guide *Where to go Abroad*, which concerns itself with such questions, describes the effect of this climate as "equal to that of London in summer, with more sun and about half as much rain, though occasionally wet seasons transfer themselves from Madeira, to the chuckling satisfaction of the latter, while as a rule the Canaries are drier and also dustier". As to the scenery of the islands, rich and rugged by turns, almost every visitor, from Humboldt downwards, seems moved to superlatives. There are differences of climate, according to altitude and exposure; but as yet resort is much a matter of accommodation, and this depends a good deal on foreign enterprise.

The innermost of them only 50 or 60 miles from the Saharan coast, there are seven principal islands, among which Grand Canary is the most productive and important, but the largest (750 square miles), Teneriffe, crowned by its famous volcanic peak, over 12,000 feet high,—*the* Peak to mariners

of the Atlantic. One sleeping crater here broke out alarmingly in 1909. On this island are the harbour of Santa Cruz and the beautiful valley of Orotava, which makes the principal health-resort, another being Las Palmas, the capital of Grand Canary, that appears to be more breezy and bracing. This is not to be confounded with Palma, the most westerly and not the least lovely of the group, with a great volcanic crater for its lion, and another Santa Cruz for its capital, the Spaniards and Portuguese always having a Catholic taste for planting sacred names on heathen soil. Both these nations have in turn been masters here. The original inhabitants, doubtfully supposed of Berber origin, have long been exterminated, or overlaid by a somewhat composite European stock, who in all number under 300,000.

Their name has been extended to several productions of the islands: the luscious Canary wine which Falstaff consumed more freely than is safe for a generation much troubled by the dregs of its ancestors' deep drinking; the birds that make cheerful companions to many a gentle spinster; the Canary grass seed that is their natural food; and the yellow Canary wood of a laurel-tree common to these islands and to Madeira. The Canaries are also renowned for their dragon-trees, one of which, now gone the way of all timber, was declared by Humboldt the oldest tree in the world. At one time a chief production was cochineal, almost driven out of use now by the aniline dyes, though it still colours "England's cruel red", at least in officers' uniforms. Bananas, tomatoes, and potatoes are now exported. The whole volcanic group appears to abound in mineral springs, which some day may turn the Canaries into an oceanic Carlsbad or Harrogate, could Spain stoop its orthodox pride to part with them to a Jewish syndicate such as that which M. Guy de Maupassant describes going about to found a spa, with every up-to-date attraction.

The Cape Verde Islands, belonging to Portugal, lie a dozen degrees farther south, more than 300 miles off the cape of that name which makes the western point of Africa. These are volcanic rocks, rugged and verdant, though sometimes parched up by a truly African want of rain, and always water-logged by Portuguese want of enterprise, so that in their best seasons they bloom unseen by all but the most ardent globe-trotter. The inhabitants, over 100,000, are for the most part more or less black. The largest of the islands is Santiago, with its capital Praia; and Porto Grande, on St. Vicente, is known as a coaling-station for steamers that plough their hot way through these tropical latitudes, where above the sun burns in a cloudless sky like a ball of brass, and below the boundless sea spreads smooth and shining like a sheet of oil, a liquid Sahara, now stirred by the spout of a whale, then again lashed to sudden writhing by the scourge of the tornado. For a thousand miles there is no port of refuge along the blighted mainland.[1]

[1] Before leaving these islands, it may be said that Germany is accused of casting a wistful eye on Madeira as a naval station for her growing fleet. On the heights above Funchal, Germans have built a huge sanitorium, and speculators of the same nation have been seeking a concession for a gambling resort that would throw its upas shade over the island. So say English hotel proprietors, who, threatened by rival enterprise, see only one step from a casino to a coaling-station. If indeed the pride of Portugal would allow her to sell this or any other eligible island in the Atlantic, she might not have long to look for a customer.

# THE SAHARA

The background of all those North African states is formed by the Sahara, whose general characteristics have already been outlined in our survey of their southern borders. This is the largest desert of the world, an area of between two and three millions of square miles, three or four times the extent of the Mediterranean and almost as large as the European Continent. From the Atlantic it stretches across to the Red Sea, cut only by the green belt of the Nile; then but for the Red Sea it would be enlarged by the wastes of Arabia, passing into the desert zone of Central Asia. Its irregular southern border may be roughly put near 15° above the Equator. On the north-east it mingles its sands with those of the Mediterranean. The north-west corner, as we have seen, is a mountain mass cut off from the Sahara by a chain of salt lakes, which may represent a prehistoric sea-bed. French engineers were once sanguine of being able to let in the sea at this point, so as to turn a great part of the Sahara into a new Mediterranean, revolutionizing the climate and productions of the region. So bold an enterprise, however, was rebuffed by discovery that the Sahara had an irregular level far above the sea for the most part, and with elevations mountain high. Much as it has been traversed by German and French explorers, great parts of it still remain unsurveyed; and every well-equipped expedition, like the recent one of M. Foureau that crossed it southwards from Biskra, and Herr Vischer's from Tripoli to Lake Chad, brings some modification to our idea of this vast wilderness.

The Sahara is rather like a petrified sea of sand and rock than the uniform landscape that figures in popular conceptions. From the edge of such an oasis as Biskra the dazzling glare shows the desert as if one unbroken plain; but, advancing upon it, one soon finds one's self floundering among cracks, heaps, miniature ridges and ravines, which on a larger scale are repeated over its surface. Great stretches, indeed, appear drearily flat, beyond their edge of rugged mountain spurs; but these, often as elevated as any British mountain, are found raised into the steeply scarped table-hills so characteristic of Africa, wrinkled into ridges, or springing up in isolated peaks, far-seen landmarks The soil is by no means always a dull expanse of sea-shore sand, but often a flaked clay or a coating of shingle; and the general brownness or grayness is varied by red sandstones, blue or pink granites, white or green veins of quartz, masses of black basalt, rusty lavas, sullen schists, and other mineral tints on which sunrise and sunset paint more glowing hues. Travellers' descriptions dwell less on the monotonous wastes that make the desert of our mental pictures than on wildly broken and weirdly coloured highlands, presenting stupendous cliffs, crests of rock splintered into startling shapes, their edges ground, pointed, and polished by flying sand; banks of loose scree hundreds of feet high; fields

of rounded stones or of sharp-cornered gravel; chaotic concretions; salt hills glistening like ice; crevasses like those of a glacier; funnelled couloirs and tortuous chasms; deep stream-beds here paved with smooth worn slabs, there choked by pebble-strewn boulders; hollows half-filled by saline lakes that catch the rare and rapid flush of these empty water-courses. Spots of dry ground, too, are impregnated with salts and alkalis which, blighting them for vegetation, supply a treasured harvest of the desert; and some crusts are so thick as to deserve the name of salt-mines, along with deposits of rock-salt among the heights. Tracts of loose soil are covered with what from a distance may seem

"A petrified sea of sand and rock"

Photo. Neurdein Frères

wholesome green, but proves a skin of bitter gourds and senna, from which the sinking feet of man and beast willingly regain the firm sand.

Rain is a rare blessing here, yet sometimes the mountain valleys are flooded by violent storms, and their peaks may be topped by trickling snow. The climate is one of "fierce extremes, extremes by change more fierce". By day, heights and plains are baked under a burning sun to a heat sometimes of 150° or more; but this glow soon radiates into the clear night sky, when the thermometer on elevated spots may fall several degrees below freezing-point. Such rapid alternation of temperature brings about a constant cracking, crumbling, and rolling down of rocky corners, grinding each other to smaller fragments, which are caught up by winds often so powerful as to whirl along lumps of stone like shreds of paper. Thus goes on a constant manufacture of sand, which is the desert's most marked though not the prevalent constituent, coarse and fine, spread out in carpets, or piled up into wave-like ridges, breaking in a

dusty foam from crests that may rise to a thousand feet. Sometimes these sand-hills are fixed to the ground by their own weight and their skeleton of stones; sometimes they seem water-logged by springs at their base; sometimes they move slowly before the wind, their surface so soft that man and beast sink into the yielding mass, and the leeward side is steep or hollowed like a breaking wave. Their parallel furrows and troughs have also been compared to a gigantic ploughed field; but observers here fall rather into the way of ascribing properties of water to the sand, so often does it fill the air like moisture in other climates, raising a fog through which the sun glares dim and pale, hurled blindingly along with a hail of pebbles, or thickened to the fiery snow of the simoom, that may bury the bewildered wanderer beneath its drifts. Canon Tristram thus describes a milder infliction of this habitual trial:—"A strong and bitter wind saturated the air with impalpable sand, till every pore of the body was gritty and irritated, and the sharp quartz fragments felt as though they had penetrated even beneath the skin. The eyes were in torture, sand in everything. . . . We chewed rice and sand, bread and sand, and drank foul water and sand. My knife grated as I opened it; my pencil scraped as I attempted to use it; the touch-holes of our guns were choked; our tobacco was heavy with it; it predominated over coffee-grounds in our cups, and our beards and moustaches were matted with it." A rain of red sand from the Sahara sometimes falls upon ships sailing far out in the Atlantic. The same cause produces the phenomenon of "blood rain" in Italy; and the dry African dust is wafted even across the Alps as far as Germany.

The most fearful aspect of the sand is when it comes blown up in a sweltering storm, that, soon after its appearance as a tinted haze, rushes on to overwhelm travellers in choking darkness, where they have nothing for it but to turn their backs to the blast and cover their faces, in hope that the visitation may pass over them as rapidly as it came. Again, they find themselves surrounded by moving sand-spouts, which the sun-glare sometimes turns to pillars of fire, or these whirling columns take the form of gigantic foes. Familiar soon becomes the mirage, that well-known phenomenon of refracted light, painting on the horizon delusive scenes of shady palm-groves, cooling sheets of water, or friendly dwellings. There is a mirage of sound as well as of sight, when the report of a gun reverberates long and loudly between naked cliffs, and the rattle of sand upon parched stems comes echoing through the dunes, magnified as by a microphone into a mysterious drumming or droning which the Arabs take for an omen of death. Then there are violent atmospheric effects that enhance the terror of the desert, sudden hurricanes and appalling outbursts of electrical disturbance that keep men and animals in a state of tense excitement. M. Foureau tells us how in the Aïr highland region, almost every afternoon, the black sky delivered itself of violent thunder and lightning, with dusty gusts usually ending in only a few drops of rain, but occasionally in a torrential downpour, half-filling the water-courses with a muddy freshet, to be dried up next day.

What water falls on this arid land is partly sucked up by the air, partly gathers, stagnant and befouled, in shallow lakes; but it also escapes by fissures in the rocky subsoil, forming subterranean reservoirs which ooze here and there to the surface, or may be drawn upon by deep wells. Whenever any quantity of fresh water can thus be made available, green spots gather and patches of

shade spring up to form the famous oases, for which there is no better epithet than the hackneyed one of islands and islets, sometimes grouped into an archipelago, sometimes standing lonely in what seems a boundless waste. These are the havens of the desert, from one to another of which its caravan fleets steer their way, often following a track grimly buoyed out by the bones of men and animals, till the next sand-storm covers such warnings of perilous travel. Well-known resting-places are pits and trickles of water, which may be found brackish or choked with sand to mock the dry-lipped wayfarers, when their skins of muddy and lukewarm fluid have given out. Even where no water is

Scene in an Oasis Town in the Sahara. (From a photograph.)

apparent, the ground may support gnarled gum-bearing trees, and, scattered among tufts of coarse grass and large stretches of more or less nutritive pasture, bunches of perfumed flowers, patches of prickly bush, often hidden away in hollows of naked heights where the stranger wonders how the herds of their nomad inhabitants can pick up a living. But it is in the oases that flourish thickets of fruit-trees, chief of them the date in its many varieties, and under their blossoming shade fields of grain and beds of vegetables, sometimes covering the ground for miles together, all kept green by a spider-web of artificial channels. This rich vegetation is so far no blessing that it often nurses fever, whereas ophthalmia, caused by irritating sand, is the worst scourge of the desert.

The reader might not thank us for a list of the chief oases, several of which have already been touched on in our account of the Barbary Coast hinderland. Some of them contain considerable fortified towns and elaborate buildings, such as the strangely crocketed mosque-tower of Agades in the mountainous southern

centre, a noted station on the route between Tripoli and the Soudan. This and other towns make the centre of petty states, sometimes democratic communities, sometimes ruled by chiefs with wider pretensions than authority. Exposed as they are to ruin by war, these states have here and there protected themselves by forming confederacies, like the Twat group, in a central depression of the Sahara, which is said to have a population of 120,000. In some cases an oasis contains several villages at feud with each other. Some are dens of land-pirates, who sally forth to prey on the commerce of the desert. Plundering here is a more congenial enterprise than the trade carried on between the coast and the Soudan. Neighbours freely "lift" the cattle of neighbours, and bold spirits will travel hundreds of miles to carry out a promising *razzia* on ill-protected property. Yet, as in Arabia, there are signs of a civility even between hereditary foes, rules that make certain wells neutral ground, and that protect the women of a tribe when the men have run away to fight another day with better odds on their side. Caravans passing through the wilderness are safe-conducted on paying toll or black-mail, better guarded by being too strong for attack. A certain amount of local commerce goes on, cotton goods, firearms, matches, tea, and other luxuries being imported into the oases from the north, and cotton, rice, sugar, honey, &c., from the Soudan. Money passes, the Austrian Maria Theresa dollars being here held in most credit; and in the wilder parts, all sorts of battered small coins, occasionally to be recognized as Roman, under the general name of *flous*, go for seven to a French *sou*; but such wares as blocks of salt and strips of cloth appear to be a commoner currency. Arabic reading and writing are not unknown to the upper class, whose literature, however, is almost confined to the Koran.

The oasis towns as a rule have not much to reward the tourist for their difficult access. Canon Tristram speaks of one group to the south of Algeria as all alike—a broad ditch of stagnant water and a honey-combed wall enclosing a chaos of decayed mud houses, above which rises a square mosque tower; then the outskirts straggle off in a labyrinth of mud walls, palms, and sand-banks sprinkled with houses, and one open space serving as market-place. In the chain of oases extending into Egyptian territory on the south of Tripoli Mr. Bayle St. John followed the footsteps of Alexander the Great in visiting the ruins of Jupiter Ammon's temple, and near it Siwah, whose capital, built of half-salt earth, he describes as a sort of human bee-hive, so close packed on a hill-top that even in daytime the people had to grope through its covered ways by lantern-light. At Agades in the south M. Foureau found buildings of stone as well as clay, and some of two stories, making pretence to architectural effect, but most of them had fallen into ruins, and the leading feature was mounds of rubbish alternating with pools of stinking mud, the inhabitants having dwindled to a few thousand who depended for almost everything on the uncertain arrival of caravans; this is said once to have been a flourishing city of 70,000 people. It is not only predatory war that ruins the Saharan "cities", but their declining transport trade, now that the Cape competes with the Soudan in the supply of ostrich feathers, that the elephants of Central Africa have been thinned out for their valuable ivory, and that the advance of Christian authority keeps on circumscribing the area within which human flesh and blood makes profitable merchandise. Part of this trade also is now diverted to the French Senegambian ports, and to the Nile, made safe by the Mahdi's fall.

Where the oases are so little visited by statistically-minded strangers, and where so many nomad bands have to be taken into account, a guess is all that can be made at the population of the Sahara, put at from one to two millions. These inhabitants are of very composite origin, the chief stock being the Berber, alloyed with negro blood from the south and mingled with the intruding Arabs. Some of the oases contain a perfect hodge-podge of breeds. In many of them are found Jews, burned black by the sun, and having here the speciality of working in metals, while under the protection of European law they ply also their trade as usurers. The industrious and peaceable Beni M'zab,

Touareg Warriors

Photo. Leroux, Algiers

on the southern frontier of Algeria, have been called the "Jews of the Sahara", and their name has suggested a Moabite descent. More commonly the Saharans are treacherous barbarians, among whom ill-armed or incautious explorers run a great risk of murder. On and about the high central Ahaggar plateau the dominant race are the Touaregs, Iroquois of the desert, whose warriors, on their tall white dromedaries, make such an appalling figure by the black or white veils with which they cover their faces night and day. These fierce faces a singular modesty forbids the warrior to bare; but when blushingly revealed, they may be found scarred with the sign of the cross, which emblem, appearing also on the Touaregs' shields and sword-hilts, has been taken as a survival of ancient Christianity. Akin to them, but apparently with more black blood, are the Tibu tribes of the Tibesti range that runs obliquely across the middle of the Sahara. On the north-eastern side of this, the poorest, driest, least populated, and most unknown part extends across Libya to the Nile. Arab bands unex-

pectedly appear most numerous on the western side, farthest from their original seat. The chief centres of population seem to be in the central stretch, either upon the edge of the Barbary states or towards that of the Soudan. On the west, along the Atlantic, comes a specially desolate strip, the shore of which is claimed rather than occupied by Spain. Throughout the whole expanse, travellers often go for days without seeing a nomad tent, much less the straw-wattled *gourbis* of a settled village; but this apparent absence of population may sometimes be explained by the fact that the approach of a stranger is a warning for the suspicious natives to keep their distance, unless they feel strong enough to fall upon him from some stealthy ambush. Even where all is now a desolation, heaped-up tumuli and roughly-built tombs are found to show where men have lived and died.

Animal life, too, is thin, swift, secretive, made up chiefly of colourless creatures, whose life lies in hiding from or surprising each other. The lark cannot be seen till it takes flight from the sand; a golden lizard has power to change its tints like the chameleon, yet does not escape being preyed on by tiny crocodiles of its own kind. The dismal aspect of the desert is not cheered by the croak of ravens, which may be seen boldly perching on the backs of camels, to pick out their ticks; nor by the hideous vultures that hover or perch hard by patiently waiting till death has prepared their loathsome meal. The oases are enlivened by many of our birds taking winter refuge here; the lakes harbour flocks of flamingoes and various other water-fowl; guinea-fowls, doves, and unexpected songsters are found among the heights; and the thorny trees may bear a strange crop of globular nests. Hawking is a noble sport with the Arabs, who have one breed of falcon that will swoop on a gazelle Ostriches pick up a living on the desert, and are kept tame in the oasis towns. Near any vegetation, beasts of game and beasts of prey steal forth at night to raise their howling concert round the traveller's camp. Shy monkeys inhabit wooded ravines. The lion might be followed into mountain recesses, but is not at home on the open Sahara. More dangerous to its travellers, besides harmless serpents, are such as the horned viper, whose sting is certain death in an hour. Almost under any stone, sometimes, may be disturbed a bloated spider-like creature that willingly scurries away like the wind, unless surprised into inflicting a painful bite. The Arabs delight in setting these venomous things to fighting each other, or in torturing a scorpion amid a circle of fire, where it seems to sting itself to death in its own writhings. The sands shelter curious ant-lions and burrowing lizards known as "sand-fish". There are real fish in some of the lakes, and huge frogs welter in the oasis mud. Gay dragon-flies form an aristocracy of the insect world. Travellers in the north have found shrubs whitened by a blossom of snails, much eaten as a delicacy in many parts of Africa. Ants work tiny havoc; and the rare green of the desert is not spared by clouds of greedy locusts.

The flocks of the Sahara are sheep and goats, more rarely cattle, unless the humped zebus of the south, which may be set to work at water-wheels. Fowls and dogs are kept in the villages, and a kind of greyhound is trained to hunting. There is a breed of very small donkeys. Some Arab tribes cherish the cult of the horse, which may soon be worn lame and shoeless on rocky desert tracks. The most valuable beast of burden here, as in Arabia, is the camel, "ship of the desert", without which travel would be almost impossible

in this wilderness of sand, expressively called by the Arabs a "waterless sea". But the camel, too, suffers from its sullenly-performed tasks. M. Foureau set out from Algeria with a thousand camels, hardly one of which reached the other side alive.

Many parts of the Sahara are still so clouded in ignorance that we know not what mineral riches may be lying unsought beneath its waves of rocky land. Nor can we well estimate the forces of Moslem fanaticism that are believed to be fermenting over such a vast area, and may any day burst forth against the closing rim of civilization on its edges. Their focus appears to be the Kufara oasis group, in the heart of the Libyan desert, far to the south of Tripoli, where no Christian durst set foot to spy out what is hatching against his creed. Here is the seat of the Senoussi sect or fraternity, at present the most rampantly fanatical of those affiliated brotherhoods that play as active a part in the Moslem world as did the Jesuits or the Methodists in Christendom. This body appears to have taken its origin two centuries ago, and to have been revived in the middle of last century by an enthusiast named Senoussi, a "veiled prophet" like the monster famed in Lalla Rookh. His son and successor died in 1902; but another of the family has been recognized as Mahdi of a sect spread from Mesopotamia to Guinea, and perhaps to be numbered by millions; its emissaries are said to be active even as far as India and Malaysia. Their leading principle seems hatred of the Christians, who have made such inroads on Moslem supremacy in North Africa. Among those remote oases, as Caves of Adullam for fierce and angry spirits from the whole region, are their chief "convents", as we translate the name of institutions that teach and send out devoted missionaries in disguise of merchants, pilgrims, jugglers, or wandering story-tellers, as well as avowed preachers, to proclaim a hot gospel of what may be called pan-Islamism. Luckily, their late head refused to join fanatical forces with that bloodthirsty Mahdi of the Soudan; but there is no saying when a similar high tide of bigotry may not flood the Sahara, though, indeed, some authorities consider the Senoussi bugbear to be overrated. The leaders show a Cromwellian trust in powder, if it be true that for some time past they have been accumulating in their mysterious retreat a store of modern firearms, and even cannon. Such a practical spirit is an ominous warning to the young French and English settlements in the Soudan, as, if once the new prophet of blood come out from behind his veil, he would do wisely to turn rather against these scattered outposts than to dash his power upon the better-defended cities of the Mediterranean coast.

# THE SOUDAN REGION

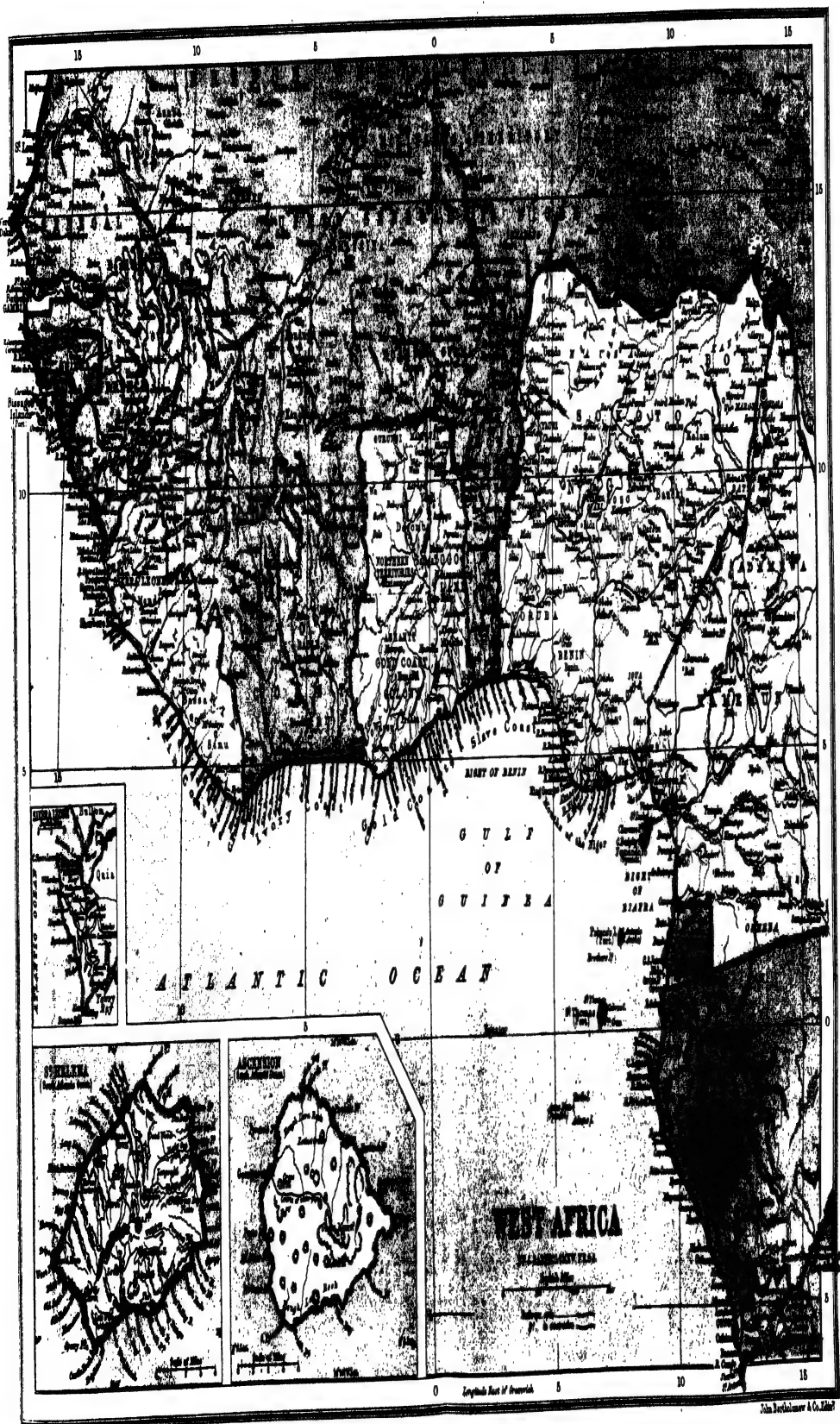
On the southern borders of the Sahara, one sometimes finds one's self day by day passing into a region of different characteristics. Stretches of brush and wooded hollows grow more wide and frequent, among which still extend tongues of desert and semi-desert land, licking up the less rare moisture. Tall giraffes appear, scudding away to their leafy haunts; and the plains are dotted with high ant-hills like miniature fortresses. The hills, no longer bare and sunburnt, begin to offer prospects of verdant and varied scenery. New forms of vegetation more and more thickly clothe Nature's softer, rounder outlines. Here and there the traveller comes upon a spreading tree, beneath which a hundred men and beasts can seek shade; and these are often grouped in noble clumps among luxuriant herbage. At the end of a day's march he may find himself powdered with the pollen of high grass, instead of gritty sand; then he may have to push his way through a veritable forest, tangled at every step among thorns, creepers, and fallen trunks. In clearings and on open steppes he comes upon wide fields of grain, whose stalks, woven into mats, make the thatch, sometimes the walls of bee-hive-shaped huts, clustered in villages like a yard of haystacks, enclosed by palisades or quick hedges. The inhabitants can afford to burn wide areas of underwood to make richer pasture for their herds of great horned cattle as well as sheep and goats. Camels are replaced by oxen and asses as beasts of burden. The thick-branched, deep-rooted baobab,[1] the doum palm, and other large timber become common. And when, as he holds southward, the stranger arrives on a flowing river, its banks choked by luscious greenery, trampled by the feet of elephants and rhinoceroses, alive with twitterings and chatterings that are hushed before the roar of the lion, stirred, too, by the splash of the hippopotamus and the crocodile, he can be sure that a few days' journey have gradually brought him full into the Soudan, where life seems doubly exuberant in contrast with the blighted zone into which it merges and overlaps on the north, its edges usually tending to ruin by encroachment of the desert sand. Across this ill-defined border the tide of human conquest, too, may ebb and flow. Within the last century some of the southern Sahara towns have been dominated by Soudanese princes, them-

[1] The king of African plants is the baobab (*Adansonia digitata*), "the elephant of trees", which sometimes attains a circumference of 100 feet round its forking trunk, crowned by a big dome of dark-green leaves that need light and air, so that this giant is at home on the open savannahs rather than in the dense forests. The fruit, the nut that has given it the alias of the "monkey-bread tree", is a huge pod filled with pith having an acid taste and febrifuge properties, which in South Africa suggests another nickname, "the cream-of-tartar tree". The leaves also have medicinal value, and with the fibres are turned to various uses. A hollow baobab trunk often makes a reservoir for many tons of water; sometimes its limbs are adapted as tombs. The inside of those "gouty" limbs is filled with spongy pith, not hard wood, so that the great tree readily decays into a gray skeleton, while, being deciduous, it presents a swollen, clumsy figure when stripped of its foliage and pendent white blossoms.

Baobab Tree (*Adansonia digitata*). (From a photograph)

selves probably of desert origin; and at this day the fierce Touaregs are tyrannical intruders on the banks of the Niger. The banditti of the sands may well, indeed, be attracted to a region whose general aspect is fertile river lands and rich grass savannahs, while woodlands are a frequent but seldom, unless on the coast, an overpowering feature of the Soudan.

It has already been pointed out how our campaigns on the Nile have misled newspaper readers into limiting the name Soudan to the eastern end of a broad belt of Central Africa, some two millions of square miles, on which live at least a twentieth part of the human race. The "Land of the Blacks" is a fertile, well-watered region with a tropical climate and a regular summer rainfall drained into three great river basins, the Niger, the Congo, and the Nile, or into the central hollow of Lake Chad, that appears to be almost the lowest depression (under 1000 feet) of this lowest zone of Africa, which in general is rather less elevated than the Sahara. Here positive statements are often questionable, and we can only trace general outlines of an inland region, till lately little known to Europeans, reached as it still is by three difficult routes, the dangerous tracks of the Sahara, the unhealthy channel of the Lower Niger, and the marshy western affluents of the Upper Nile, closed for a time by the Mahdi's domination; to which there can now be added a fourth route up the Senegal and over its watershed to the Upper Niger. The western coast, on the Gulf of Guinea, has been longer visited, and will be treated separately, as one of the African regions best known to us by commerce.

The Soudan is the home of the negroes, "eldest children of the sun", acclimatized to its fever-haunted soil. To the south, Africa is mainly inhabited by a different stock, the Bantus. From the north, alien races have pressed into the

rich black zone, forming peoples of mixed blood, who are often raised more or less above their native paganism by at least a superficial civilization of conquering Islam. The chief intruders on this side, whose best-known name is Fulahs, appear to be Berbers, or their kindred, first converted, then forced southwards by the pressure of Arab domination, to wreak their own wrongs and to impose their adopted faith upon the more helpless negroes. In the eastern Soudan the ruling race are rather true Arabs. The population of the Soudan, then, may be described as a Mohammedan aristocracy, Hamite or Semite, a more or less Moslemized negroid body, and a large residuum of pagan negroes on the south and towards the coast, where European interests have now checked the advance of Islam, while, as has been shown, the north may any day be swept by an eruption from the active crater of Senoussi fanaticism in the Sahara.

In dealing with such a vast mass of varied folk we must be content with a hasty glance over their condition, ranging from that primitive one of "manners none, customs beastly", to a considerable stage of semi-barbarous culture. Some of the peoples go naked, with perhaps Adam's girdle of leaves as a concession to decency; others, even in that hot climate, make a point of wrapping themselves in as much as a hundred yards of narrow cloth, manufactured at home, and now also imported from Europe. Their weapons are often no better than bows and poisoned arrows; but an equipment of lances, javelins, bucklers, and broad knives here and there includes swords, firearms, even cannon. A rude armour is sometimes found formed of leather patches in imitation of the crocodile; and the superstitious warrior thinks to protect himself by an array of charms and written spells that seem more indispensable defences. In some parts herds of fine cattle, goats, and hairy sheep are carefully tended. The ruling class are herdsmen rather than tillers of the soil, which bears many crops, the most common perhaps being millet, especially in the *durra* variety sometimes called "guinea-corn", raised from soil which has but to be "tickled with a hoe, to laugh with a harvest". The plough seems to be known only in the north-eastern corner, where a poorer soil prevails. As in most African countries, a kind of beer is made from grain. Bananas, yams, sweet-potatoes, and nuts, with more abundant fruit in the south, supply part of the people's food. Tobacco, coffee, and sugar-cane grow wild, as do cotton and indigo, which are cultivated for a considerable weaving and dyeing of cotton cloth. A notable growth is the kola-nut, whose stimulating properties begin to be known in Europe. Honey is another product, bees being kept sometimes in hives as large as the houses to which they have been found serving as a formidable defence against naked assailants. In some parts the people extract iron and salt from their soil, exchanging them for the food-stuffs and cloth of more fertile districts, or for fish speared, netted, and snared in the waters. There is established commercial intercourse over much of the Soudan, which sends out caravans across the wide Sahara, a trade much lessened by causes already alluded to; but new channels of export and import are now opened by the Nile and the Niger. The common money of the region is cowries, of which ten thousand go to an English crown, a currency more cumbrous even than the Chinese cash, so native traders willingly accept the Austrian dollars which have such a strong hold on African confidence, and other coins begin to be welcomed, beads and buttons sometimes passing readily, while a traveller's

expenses are always to be met by paying away bags of salt, blocks of camphor, strips of cloth, that make his baggage, or by getting rid of the slaves who have transported it. Some of the towns have renowned market-places, where indeed business may be flurried by the appearance of a brigand band, or a petty Napoleon making a slave raid on his neighbours.

The political state is highly unstable, large and indefinite dominions being nominally ruled by sultans, who claim more or less effectual vassalage from the kinglets, through whose territories a stranger must fight his way unless prepared to pay it by continual compromise with the extortionate demands

Photo. J. A. Green, Bonny

Market Place, Old Calabar, Southern Nigeria

of these local potentates. On most of them will now be brought to bear the interference of European powers, whose "spheres of influence" meet in the centre of the Soudan. In the middle ages great empires flourished here, of which rumours came to Europe, their power looming through the mist of ignorance. Such was Bornu, which still, on the west of Lake Chad, holds its shrunken name as part of Nigeria. Such was the long mysterious realm of Timbuctoo, farther west, on the edge of the desert. A century ago, a Fulah priest overran Sokoto on the Niger, which became the greatest Soudan dominion of modern times, but soon began to break up, and is now controlled by the British rule of Nigeria. In our own day we have seen such an attempt at empire-making nipped in the bud. An Arab adventurer named Rabah, said to have been a mutinous lieutenant of the Mahdi, gathered a band of warriors who swooped upon the shores of Lake Chad, burning, slaying, and devastating like a cloud of locusts. For nearly twenty years he played the robber tyrant

here, and might have ended by founding a new state, had he not come into collision with a French expedition, numbering a few hundred Algerian and Senegalese riflemen, by whom in 1900 he was defeated and killed at the cost of the French leader, Commandant Lamy's life.

The general characteristics of the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan have been already touched on in our account of the Nile, to which drains the eastern side of this region, by the Bahr el Ghazal and its net-work of streams, where the Mahdi's dervishes fled for refuge. Kordofan, west of the Nile, is bordered by Darfur, a mountainous and partly desert country, land of the Fur blacks, dominated by Arab intruders, and now within the English sphere of influence. Other stretches of little-known country to the west of this can be distinguished by the prefix Dar, most of them swallowed up in the Moslem Wadai sultanate, which has waxed and waned since its foundation in modern times. It was the strongest native state of the Eastern Soudan, having at one time extended its conquests into the Central Soudan round Lake Chad. The exact bounds of these African empires must be drawn as if by quicksilver. This one, with its mixed population of 3 millions or so, has now been absorbed in French Equatorial Africa, reaching back from the Congo; and France will have hard work to civilize the truculent and fanatical Nubians who dominated it.

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## LAKE CHAD AND NIGERIA

The central point of the Soudan is the closed basin of Lake Chad, the largest body of water in North Africa, and much larger once when it received tributaries not only from the south, but from what is now a desert on the north side. To estimate its extent is difficult, for though on maps it makes a round compact sheet of some 10,000 square miles, it extends, through its girdle of woods and tall reeds, into creeks, back-waters, and swampy stretches flooded in the rainy season, so as then to increase the normal limits. Colonel Morland's recent expedition found its shore at one place seven miles within the high-water mark. For some distance around, the shrinkage is shown by separate lakelets and lagoons, their water sometimes brackish, while the main body is found to be fresh. A third of its area is said to be filled by an archipelago, that gives retreats to pirates sallying forth upon swanlike craft of reeds raised to a point at the bow, such as was perhaps Moses' ark of bulrushes. The lake seems, like most others in Africa, to be slowly drying up into swamps and islands, as the empire that once flourished around it has disintregrated into separate or semi-independent states. At this focus meet the different spheres of European influence, still somewhat feeble so far from their bases of material operation. On the north-west side the lake is touched by the French Sahara; on the south-east by the hinderland of the French Congo province, which here runs up over the country of the Baghirmi; and France has lately taken upon herself to join these two territories by occupying the intervening native dominion of Wadai. To the south side reaches a spoke from the German Cameroon colony, across the Adamawa country, separated from the French division by the Shari, this, and its confluent the Logon, being Lake Chad's chief feeders. On the west side lies the British territory, which seems the most valuable, and begins to be coveted

by the neighbouring power that has secured the largest share of these shores. France has been the most active in entering upon her new domain. Here in 1899 converged three expeditions, from Algiers, from the Senegal, and from the Congo, which had a partly scientific errand; but their military escorts found work cut out for them in putting down the usurper Rabah. The campaign led them across the bounds marked for Germany and for Britain; and this interference hurried both powers into steps for taking possession of what had been allotted to them. Colonel Morland, with a thousand men, pushed up from the Niger to Lake Chad, on the shores of which at least one British garrison is now established.

Our dominion here includes the old empire of Bornu, which, with the com-

paratively civilized Kanuri people as its masters, reached its height of power three or four centuries ago; but has since fallen away under repeated shocks of war. The capital, Kuka, on the western shore of the lake, was said not long ago to have 60,000 inhabitants; but it suffered from attacks by the lake pirates, and at the end of last century was utterly ruined by Rabah. Now that the French have freed the region from that scourge, and that the British occupation gives hope of future security, the town begins to be rebuilt. But one source of its prosperity is being cut off by the arms of civilized nations. Kuka was in old days a great slave-market, a trade that now falls away both in demand and supply. The army of the native sultan used to consist of slaves, equipped and organized with some regularity, and even provided with cannon in the last half-century; but the people themselves had grown out of warlike qualities, and could not defend their country against Rabah's band of brigands.

To the west of Bornu lies the Hausa country, mainly inhabited by the most notable of the mixed races in the Soudan. The Hausas are so far above savagery

Photo. N. Walwin Holm, Lagos

Hausa Soldiers

that they have a written language and a certain amount of literature. This language, spoken by fifteen millions of people in its own seat, is, Canon Robinson asserts, the most widely spread of African tongues, serving as a *lingua franca* from the Nile to the Niger, and being carried by Hausa slaves to the ports of the Mediterranean. We need not enter into the vexed question of its origin: what seems more clear is that the Hausas, whatever their affinities, are one of the most promising races in Central Africa, strong, industrious, cheerful, and biddable, qualities which have marked out their country as a great slave-preserve. Even at home the more powerful have enslaved the weaker so much as a matter of course that Colonel Monteil reckoned the slave population more numerous than the free; and Canon Robinson, while bringing down this estimate to a proportion of one-third, asserts that one out of every three hundred inhabitants of the world is a Hausa-speaking slave, a state of things which their new masters may be trusted to alter. Led and trained by European officers, the Hausas make good soldiers and policemen for both Britain and France; but left to themselves, they seem more apt in the arts of peace than in those of war; and they have been intruded upon and subdued by other stocks, notably the Moslem Fulahs, a race of shepherd horsemen, lighter in hue, more regular in features, who, apparently of Berber origin, here play much the same masterful part as the Arabs among the Berbers.

By far the most important town in this region is Kano, at present a place of some hundred thousand people, the chief market of the Soudan, in which, it has been calculated, two millions of Africa's varied inhabitants meet on various errands in the course of the year. This city, looked on as

The Emir's Palace, Kano. (From a photograph.)

the "hub of the universe" by millions who never heard of Boston nor of London, is built of red mud houses among fields and gardens, half the enclosed area of some dozen miles in circuit being open ground, so that behind its walls the population could stand a siege on their own produce.[1] Outside, the fortification is strengthened by swamps which do not improve the city's health. The palace, though mainly of sun-baked mud, is an imposing structure covering several acres, where the king held himself secluded in barbaric state, till disturbed in 1903 by the entrance of a British force, that after an easy conquest here, went on to subdue the neighbouring tyranny of Sokoto. The people are industrious and skilful in weaving cotton cloth, in dyeing it blue and scarlet, in tanning and dyeing leather, and in metal-work. Half the Central Soudanese, judges Canon Robinson, are clothed by Kano, the Paris that sets Hausa fashions. Besides its own productions, it is a depôt and distributing centre for the commerce of a wide region, the leading articles being kola-nuts, salt, iron, ivory, ostrich feathers, cattle, and animals of burden, including slaves. From the Mediterranean are imported copper utensils, gunpowder, pepper, silk

[1] "As in all other Hausa towns, there was nothing to be seen from without," says the Rev. I. A. Richardson, a member of the expedition that Bishop Tugwell led into the heart of Africa, "save the bare exterior of a great wall 40 feet high, its sinuous summit standing out red and clear against the deep blue sky. The length of the wall, with its round-shaped turrets, seemed almost interminable, stretching out a mile or two on each side of the city gates. Round this is a moat 8 feet deep. We rode up the steep pathway which led over the moat to the city gate and entered a strong tower, which protected the massive wooden door, well covered with strips of iron. Two huge beams of wood rested against the wall. These are nightly propped against the door to prevent entrance into the city, for Kano's gates have neither lock nor key. From within the city we were able to observe that the walls were enormously thick at their base, but thinned off to the breadth of a foot near the top. Not a house was visible. Nothing was to be seen but field upon field of cultivated land, upon which the people rely for food in the event of a protracted siege. With much ceremony we were escorted to our house, which lay two miles away. We passed the celebrated rock, the Dala Rock, supposed to contain gold, of which some fable exists that the day the white man extracts the gold, that day the kingdom of Kano shall perish."

and woollen garments, fez caps, mirrors, coral beads, &c., to make a motley display in the vast market-place of Kano.

There are two great trade-routes across the desert to Tripoli, both of them in late years much interrupted by petty warfare and the pillage which has always to be calculated on. One goes from Lake Chad across the wild Tibesti highlands to the oases of Fezzan. The other runs more directly north from Kano, reaching the desert at Zinder, a fortified town, half-filled up with rocks, trees, and gardens, which must be distinguished from another place of the same name on the Niger; the former has an evil repute for the supply of eunuchs, so much in demand as keepers of harems. The distance is about 1800 miles, and the journey of several months one on which Moslem patience comes in useful. Some travellers make still longer journeys of faith as well as business, the pilgrimage to Mecca being a common adventure with the Hausas, who show their practical spirit by trading as they go, yet may be stranded far from home by want of funds. At Tripoli, Canon Robinson fell in with one Hausa Ulysses who, through various hindrances had been so much delayed and turned aside on his journey to Mecca, that if he ever got home it would be after travelling nearly seven thousand miles in an absence of over ten years.

The towns of the populous Hausa country were for the most part tributary to the Sultans of Gando and Sokoto, representing one of the strong empires that here have risen and fallen to pieces. Both France and Germany had their eyes on this region; but England was first in the field, and through active emissaries of the Royal Niger Company, the chief sultans were persuaded to sign treaties of vassalage to Britain. The other European powers recognized an arrangement dealing with a frontier equal almost to the breadth of Europe and an area of some half million square miles, thus put under the Company's indirect influence. Its first exercise was in prohibiting the importation into the interior of two destructive agencies—gin, that destroys the natives body and soul more quickly than their native intoxicants, and firearms, that help them to enslave each other. Queen Victoria's Jubilee, 1897, was signalized by a formal abolition of slavery, to be in time carried out over the territory, where most of the people may not yet know how they are subjects of Britain. At the end of the century, the Company's Charter was revoked, the whole of its dominion being annexed to the Niger Coast Protectorate; and this vast province, divided into the two governments of Northern and Southern Nigeria, is now a British colony, in the French rather than the English sense of the word, since its climate is so hot that our task here must be mainly confined to regulating its trade and civilization. Northern Nigeria, where we are still pushing home our influence from headquarters at Zungeru, has been sketched above. Southern or sea-board Nigeria, on which we are more firmly fixed, has special characteristics which may be treated apart under the head of the Guinea Coast.

The river Niger, that gives a name to this new dependency, is called by many names as it passes from tribe to tribe on its course of over 2500 miles, the upper part being perhaps best known as the Joliba, and the lower waters as the Kwara. The Arabs name it "Nile of the Slaves"; and in more than one respect it resembles the Nile, in its far-spreading flood, in its troubled history, and in the mystery that so long hid its origin. Even its end was long doubtful, old geographers sometimes taking it as a tributary of the Congo, till Mungo Park and other explorers led the way to its delta in the Gulf of

Guinea, too many paying with their lives for the honour of penetrating these malarious jungles.

The Niger is unlike the Nile in the bold curve it describes throughout the western Soudan, its source and its mouth being at no great distance apart. Rising in low mountains behind Sierra Leone, its general course is at first eastward and northward over plains which its floods turn into a watery wilderness of swamps and creeks, and fill a chain of lakes that form natural reservoirs. At its most northerly point, near Timbuctoo, it meets the desert, and turns east, then south. Its course is now interrupted for two hundred miles or

The Niger Company's Wharf, Lokoja, at the confluence of the Niger and the Benue

so by cataracts, and it receives no perennial tributaries except the river of Sokoto, in a stretch where Saharan features intrude upon the Soudan; but elsewhere, notably about the large town of Bida, the country is described as like one great garden. Within 500 miles from its mouth, the river becomes again navigable, flowing on deep and steady to the junction with its chief eastern tributary the Benue, which comes down from the Lake Chad region, and at their lake-like confluence is larger than the main stream. Here stands Lokoja, whose position makes it one of our chief posts in the interior. The Benue is the principal river belonging entirely to Nigeria, and the very slight elevation parting it from Lake Chad's waters gives it importance as a channel of trade. More than two hundred miles farther down, the broad united stream splits up into countless channels, the chief navigable one the Nun, draining their way through a delta of swamp and jungle to the Gulf of Guinea.

The lower part of the Niger, open to steamers, is now fully under British

influence. Its upper course, above a long stretch of rapids that impede navigation, belongs to France, whose possessions might be distinguished as the Western Soudan.

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## THE UPPER NIGER AND SENEGAMBIA

The French dominion here falls into two parts, the older Atlantic colony watered by the Senegal, and the Upper Niger country, where as yet France's authority, like ours so far inland, has to make itself felt from a few scattered posts. On the middle Niger she has served herself heir to the Songhay Mohammedan empire, that rose to its height in the sixteenth century, under its great sultan Aksia extending from Lake Chad to the Atlantic, and having its most famous seat at Timbuctoo. This power fell before the firearms of invaders from Morocco; and its dominions have since been ruined and dismembered by shocks from within as well as from without, so that the much-harassed inhabitants should thank any conqueror that can give them peace. Since the French arrived upon this scene they have had to put down a Fulah conqueror, El Hadj Omar, and his son; then again the Niger banks were ravaged by Samory, another of those fanatical tyrants that play such a part in African history; and he came near to founding an empire among the Mandingo tribes, who in the hinderlands of the Atlantic coast are what the Hausas are in Central Soudan. Within the last few years the environs of Timbuctoo have been exposed to raids from the Touareg warriors of the adjacent desert.

It was in 1894 that the French occupied Timbuctoo, long a name of mysterious renown to Europe. Standing as it does on the edge of the desert, a few miles from the Niger, that makes a highway of commerce into once-unknown regions, this "meeting-place of camel and canoe" has long been the goal of caravans across the Sahara, by which vague reports of its riches reached the Mediterranean; but it was seldom beheld by travellers whose tales could be trusted. When brought into daylight at length, it was found in a state of ruins and rags, partly dependent on the want of solid building material, but more on oppressive raids of the Touaregs, obliging the inhabitants to dissemble the remains of their prosperity. The population had sunk to less than 10,000, speaking at least half a dozen different languages, yet most of them able to read or write Arabic.[1] The tumble-down houses often concealed large stores of

[1] "Whether you approach from the banks of the Niger, from the shores of the Atlantic, by the Moroccoan and Arawan routes, or from the coasts of the Mediterranean by Tripoli or Ghadames, the town presents the same outlines: fine, long, and deep, and evoking the same impression of grandeur in immensity. We have entered the town, and, as behind the scenes of a theatre, behold, all the grandeur has suddenly disappeared! It is another scene now, equally impressive, but on account of its tragic character rather than its beauty. Instead of finding the compact and well-ordered city which was promised us by the exterior, we enter a town that seems to have recently passed through the successive dramas of siege, capture, and destruction. The foreground, to which the play of sun and shadow had given the distant effect of city ramparts, proves to be a mass of deserted houses. The roofs have fallen in, the doors are gone, the walls are broken and crumbling, and have become mere heaps of ruin. Piles of earth, bricks, and bits of wood are scattered over the open spaces which were once the paths leading to these defunct dwellings. . . . Here are merely houses of a kind; things without character, height, or style,—just four walls and a flat roof. If this mediocrity were only pleasingly clean! But their unburnt bricks are worn, crumbling, and cracked, under the combined effects of rain, wind, and sun. Any attempt to keep them in repair was given up long ago. They seem to have been deserted for years, and inhabited again quite recently. The bizarre appearance of their enclosing walls seems to confirm this hypothesis, for the breaches in them have been hastily stopped with carelessly-adjusted mats, bundles of straw, and fagots of brushwood. The farther we advance, the more the misery increases and all traces of the majestic exterior disappear. Only the sky is the same, brilliant and immense."—Felix Dubois' *Timbuctoo the Mysterious.*

merchandise, and fragments of the libraries that made the pride of Timbuctoo, when in the palmy days of the Songhay Empire it was a seat of Arabic faith and learning, as of luxury and pleasure. One of its mosques was the Cathedral, another the University of this region; books were collected and written here, by the copying of which poor students still eke out their livelihood, as also by the writing of *gris-gris*, charms from the Koran, which are the form of literature most circulated in the desert. The chief surviving industry of the place seems to be the making of embroidered robes; then it is still a great depôt of exchange between the products of the Soudan and the luxuries imported from the north, among which rock-salt takes a lead, brought from the desert in huge blocks, stamped with trade-marks and painted designs, and bound up in leather thongs for transport, their value increasing as they go on into the saltless districts of the Soudan, varying, too, with the comparative safety of the routes

Native Women, Timbuctoo

on which they are carried so far. M. Dubois states that 50,000 to 60,000 camels arrive at Timbuctoo in an ordinary year, but this number may fall by two-thirds in troubled times. Camels being here brought to a stand by want of their accustomed rough pasture, for farther transit goods are handed over to Soudanese boatmen, the citizens getting their profits as brokers, storers, and bankers. The usual port of Timbuctoo is a few miles away, at Kabara upon a branch of the Niger; but in the dry spring boats cannot get so near, while in the flood season a back-water sometimes brings them right up to the city, standing amid a scene of pools, scrubby thickets, fields of white sand strewn with bones, and sandy dunes crested with the decaying tombs of venerated marabouts. Though Timbuctoo is 800 miles from the sea, it was captured by a handful of French marines landing from gunboats on the Niger. A French church, school, and other institutions have been set up; and, under the protec-

tion of French forts, the inhabitants begin to repair their houses and throw off the aspect of poverty forced upon them by their desert neighbours. Their trade hitherto has been chiefly by way of Morocco; but, as already pointed out, the French seek to divert this through their own territories.

Above Timbuctoo, in the wet season, the Niger expands into a series of lagoons, a labyrinth of creeks, lakes, channels, and islands, where the navigator may find himself ploughing his way through a field of flooded grass, the villages set far back beyond the range of inundation. Two or three hundred miles of devious course bring one up to Jenne, an older city than Timbuctoo. This stands not on the Niger, indeed, but on an island of its tributary the Bani, the two rivers here connected by a channel over a plain twice flooded, for as these streams swell at different times, they alternately transfer their superabundance from one to another. Besides being moated by its waters, Jenne is surrounded by strong walls that have often saved it from pillage; and the use of burnt bricks has given a here unusual solidity to the buildings, the architecture of which leads M. Dubois to conclude that this was originally an Egyptian colony. The ruins of its great mosque show what it was in the days when Timbuctoo grew up in the shadow of its renown; and Jenne is distinguished by such rare marks of African civilization as a system of drainage. Her trade is still considerable, carried on by the large well-built craft known on the Niger as "Jenne boats", which ply in small fleets, once for protection from pirates, now from force of habit. Timbuctoo has been called the port of the Sahara, but in the Soudan Jenne is not less esteemed; and if this name has not so often reached Europe, it is because we have till lately had little direct intercourse with the Niger. Yet some hint of Jenne's ancient wealth is conjectured to have filtered to Europe through the Guinea coast in our word *guinea*.

Above this comes another strongly-fortified town, Segu, ex-capital of one of the negro empires that established itself on the Niger for a time. The palace has been turned into a French fort, and there is here a post and telegraph office by which news from France daily reaches its exiles through Senegal. The country about is rich in cotton, woven by the natives into fine fabrics, and dyed with a greater variety of colours than are in use in the Central Soudan, indigo still being the favourite. Rice is the chief food crop on the plains, flooded for a breadth of sometimes fifty miles or more, without the need of artificial irrigation. Ground-nuts, kola-nuts, and others are among the crops of this favoured region. Frequent among its trees, often growing in tropical luxuriance, are three known to the French as the butter-tree, the flour-tree, and the cheese-tree, from productions that can be turned to use in more than one way. Here and there are stretches of pasture for large herds of humped oxen, horses, and long-fleeced sheep, upon which a lion may spring from some woody ambush. The river banks are often alive with hippopotamuses, crocodiles, white ospreys, and beautifully-plumaged birds; and fishermen may be seen at work who, on the passing of a white traveller's boat, raise their naked arms in the military salute, a first lesson in French subjugation.

Bammaku is the chief administrative station on the Niger, a little way below which the navigation is blocked at low water by a picturesque rapid; and above, it comes down as a swift stream formed by mountain torrents swollen from February to July. To the west rises the Foota-Jallon mountain region,

which travellers liken to European forests and Alps, so well watered "that you fall asleep every night to the sound of some gurgling cascade". Across this parting between the waters of the Niger and the Senegal goes a road of 350 miles, from Bammaku to Kayes, on the latter river; and a railway is in construction that will soon link the French coast colony of Senegal with its new dominion on the Niger.

Senegal belongs half to the Sahara, half to the Soudan, their opposite characteristics being sometimes represented on the right and left bank of its river. In our winter not a drop of rain falls for six months on its "great warm, dismal, desolate plains", as Pierre Loti describes them, "covered with dead

Avenue of Cocoa-nut Palms, St. Louis, Senegambia. (From a photograph taken for the Paris Society for Evangelical Missions.)

herbage, out of which here and there rise, beside thin palms, the colossal baobabs, which are the mastodons of the vegetable kingdom, their bare branches peopled by families of vultures, lizards, and bats". Nuts are the best of its fruit, not even the dates of the desert thriving here. This is the common aspect of the country towards the coast; the higher one goes up the river the oftener appear fields and thickets, as it flows down from the evergreen vegetation of the south. Below Kayes steamers ply on the Senegal, a thousand miles long, in its upper course broken by falls and rapids, but hence rolling over those monotonous flats, to open into the Atlantic through a sluggish delta, shut in by a shifting sand-bar that forms a lagoon and makes the harbour of difficult access. On an island in this estuary stands St. Louis, the capital of Senegal, a place of over 20,000 people, lit by electric light and joined to the main shore by a long bridge of boats, leading from the white terraces of the French town to the swarming native huts with their pointed roofs. An important institution here is a school at which the sons of native chiefs, frankly called hostages, are to be trained into civility. A railway connects St. Louis with the much-better

port and naval-station Dakar, 170 miles to the south, under Cape Verde, now the seat of the Governor-general over all the French West African colonies. Rufisque is another rising place in the same bay, where the rocky island of Gorée was once the best-known haven. Northwards, the coast is barren and inhospitable, up to the Arguin sand-bank, scene of that famous "Wreck of the *Medusa*".

This thinly-populated country is the oldest of French colonies in Africa, founded in the seventeenth century; it is claimed, indeed, and with fair probability, that French adventurers reached this coast in the middle ages, before the Portuguese who take the credit of discovering it. The inland expansion of the colony dates from the middle of last century, when General Faidherbe proved himself a pushing and stirring governor. A costly possession it has all along been to France, not least in human life, through its burning sands and malarious swamps. Its trade has never been of much account, and falls away through the laziness of the natives, who will not take the trouble of collecting its gum and other products now that they are prohibited from getting slaves to work for them. Guinea-corn is the commonest grain. Some parts of the country seem to be well adapted for cattle. The Laptot natives, like the Hausas, make good soldiers. But colonists, as usual under the tri-colour, are not so numerous as soldiers and officials; and Senegal's chief value to France is as an entrance to her new Soudan territories, whose worth also remains to be proved.

The mouth of the Senegal has more than once been in the hands of the British, who still keep the enclave of Gambia, a strip of land along the river of that name, opening into the Atlantic south of Cape Verde. On an island at the mouth of this river stands the capital, Bathurst, a place of a few thousand inhabitants; and the jumble of population dependent on us here is not more than 50,000. Though of small importance now, this colony can boast of being one of our oldest, dating from early in the seventeenth century, when the "factory" trading stations were first established on the West African coast.

Senegambia is a name somewhat vaguely applied to this part of the Atlantic sea-board. But where it begins to trend inwards from the great northwestern projection of Africa we had better include it under the more familiar name of the Guinea Coast. This is the Soudan's shore-lands, falling to be treated apart, not only by their peculiar features, but as shared out among several European powers. Between their boundaries France has pushed her way to the sea at three different points, so as to assume the leading part in exploiting the Western Soudan, a part which seems that of dog in the manger, as, thanks to her costly officialdom and her policy of commercial restriction, not one of these dependencies pays its expenses, unless in the indirect manner of affording an outlet for restless spirits who, fretting at home, might cost their country another revolution.

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## THE GUINEA COAST

The coast of Senegambia is for the most part Saharan, where along 1500 miles not a port or a town can be seen. With the Gambia River begins a better-watered and more-thickly-peopled region; then, turning into the Gulf of Guinea, we find the true shore of the Soudan extended to its farthest bight.

Upper and Lower Guinea were names once in use, the latter denoting the Congo region; but Guinea is now confined to the northern side of the gulf. This low, surf-washed coast, with its violent storms, its reeking swamps, and its poisonous mists, is the most deadly part of Africa for Europeans, yet its natural richness has tempted different nations to form here a line of settlements, almost to quarrel with each other for domination and influence. Colonies is hardly the word for these "factories" or trading-posts, to which Europeans will hardly go unless urged by gain, and are always eager to make their stay as short as possible. A few years' residence at such a "White Man's Grave" is more than enough for most, nor can all prolong the trying ordeal so far. There are parts of West Africa where the annual European death-rate is over one-third, where the living pass half their days prostrate from fever, and even when escaped in time to a healthier climate, may carry the seeds of it to the end of their lives. This is the malarious fever, as much a matter of course as catching cold with us; where, too, chills are easily taken and often prove fatal. Mortality, indeed, somewhat decreases through precautions suggested by the important discovery that a most active agent of malarious infection is one species of mosquito; also as white men learn to trust rather in quinine than in the liquors with which they are too much tempted to drown the ennui of life and the fear of death. On the other hand, it is stated that they become more affected by the deadly "black-water" or bilious fever, and by a form of typhoid that seems to thrive on imperfect attempts at sanitation.

The gold of Guinea was famous long before California and Australia came into note; and its slave-trade was infamous when men like the Rev. John Newton, in his wild youth, could take part in it with as little compunction as if "black ivory" were no better than horse flesh. Stretches of the shore still keep such names as the Grain Coast[1], or Pepper Coast, the Ivory Coast, the Gold Coast, and the Slave Coast, from the merchandise that first took traders there; but its chief exports at present are palm-oil, rubber, and timber, along with nuts, hides, coffee, cocoa, rice, cotton, and other productions either natural or experimental. Gold is still found, as we know from the prospectuses of mining companies; more valuable, perhaps, being the iron and other metals unworked for want of skill and industry. British, not to say Bristol, traders long took a lead here; and English, in the form of a broken jargon mixed with Portuguese words and with curious phrases of trade slang, is still most commonly spoken along the sea-board; but we now find our supremacy vigorously contested by France and Germany, more feebly by the once-predominant Portugal, while other naval peoples, the Dutch and the Danes, have given up their footholds on this dreaded coast.

The conformation and scenery of Guinea are apt to prove monotonous. It is commonly edged by a flat stretch of sand or mud, behind which comes a slightly more elevated bushy plain, dotted with hills that rise in the background to mountains of no great height, the great Kong range marked in older maps having vanished before exploration of the hinderlands. From these heights flow rivers whose broken course calms down, commonly spreading out into shallow lagoons or rotting marshes on the edge of the sea, from which they are cut off by narrow sand-banks with openings choked up by bars that

[1] *Grain* here does not refer to corn, but to the "Guinea grains", a kind of cardamum spice formerly much esteemed in Europe.

Photo. Geo. Hughes, Cape Coast

Troops for the Ashanti Expedition landing at Cape Coast Castle, West Coast of Africa

imperil the access of such difficult harbours. Outside, the Atlantic rollers dash into a wall of surf that often makes landing an adventure, in rough weather an impossibility. Sometimes the heights come down to the sea in cliffs like those of Cornwall; more often they stand back from its flat rim, on which palm-trees wave their prominent heads, and the inner lagoons are choked with rushes and skimmed over with water-lilies. Or again, at the river mouths the low shore will be hidden by a jungle of ugly mangroves, their roots sprawling above the mud, half-drowned at high tide, gathering about them slime and drift that keep pushing the fetid rankness of the land out into the water, though at times bits of this amphibious wilderness break away, and are borne out to sea as floating islands.[1]

[1] The late Miss Mary Kingsley (*West African Studies*) describes a long reach of coast-line here as consisting of "four different things in four long lines—lines that go away into eternity for as far as eye can see. There is the band of yellow sand on which your little factory is built. This band is walled to landwards by a wall of dark forest, mounted against the sky to seaward by a wall of white surf; beyond that there is the horizon-bounded ocean. Neither the forest wall nor surf wall changes enough to give any lively variety; they just run up and down a gamut of the same set of variations. In the light of brightest noon the forest wall stands dark against the dull blue sky; in the depth of the darkest night you can see it stand darker still, against the stars; on moonlight nights and on tornado nights, when you see the forest wall by the lightning light, it looks as if it had been done over with a coat of tar. The surf wall is equally consistent; it may be bad or good as surf, but it's generally the former, which merely means it is a higher, broader wall, and more noisy, but it's the same sort of wall making the same sort of noise all the time. It is always white—in the sunlight, snowy white, suffused with a white mist, wherein are little broken, quivering bits of rainbows. In the moonlight it gleams with a whiteness there is in nothing else on earth. If you can imagine a non-transparent diamond wall, I think you will get some near idea to it, and even on the darkest of dark nights you can still see the surf wall clear enough, for it shows like the ghost of its daylight self, seeming to have in it a light of its own, and you love or hate it. Night and day and season changes pass over these things, like reflections in a mirror, without altering the mirror frame; but nothing comes that ever stills for one half-second the thunder of the surf wall or makes it darker, or makes the forest wall brighter than the rest of your world."

The scenery of West Africa has some beautiful aspects, but hardly a good word can be said for its climate, unless it might boast to be the worst in the world. The prevailing winds from the sea keep it damp, enervating, and oppressive out of all proportion to its sun-heat, often veiled by steamy mists or leaden skies. The rainfall, which varies both in time and in quantity at different points, is regular in its seasons and often immoderate in its supply, coming down rather in the form of streams than of showers. Appalling are the furious outbreaks of tempest and rain called tornadoes,[1] and trying the long invasions of the parching Harmattan wind from the Sahara, that covers sea and land with a smoky haze. It is the clearing of wet-weather spells that proves most perilous, for then the swamps fill the air with their poisonous exhalations. This is taken as the breeding of fever, while now science has found mosquitoes accessories after the fact, convicted of spreading the infection by their innumerable assaults. The bush is haunted not only by fever, but by cobras and other deadly creatures; and in the water the fear of sharks or alligators may forbid the refreshment of a bathe. Scorpions and such like are as common as spiders with us. The human body nurses such parasites as the Guinea-worm, lodging below the skin to produce a painful ulcer, from which it must be carefully wound out, so much a day, without being broken. The natives themselves suffer from fever, though it is not so fatal to their acclimatized constitutions; they are also liable to small-pox, consumption, dysentery, rheumatism, leprosy, and other loathsome skin diseases, and to obscure forms of mental aberration. On the whole, they are naturally well adapted to their hot environment, and usually display figures fit for a sculptor's model, with the thick and heavy features of the race that "invents nothing, originates nothing, improves nothing, and can only cook, nurse, and fiddle".

This is the home of the true Negro, no longer modified by Berbers from the north, as, to the south, his mingles with Bantu blood. Mohammedanism, with its higher culture, has hardly tinged the Guinea Coast. Christian missionaries have been long at work here, without much beneficial effect on a disposition which seems that of a lazy, obstinate, and excitable child, in whom critical ethnologists are inclined to recognize a man, but hardly a brother, rather a cousin of the superior races. Many of the natives have been won over to call themselves Christians, some have been taught to preach their adopted faith, here and there one has risen to be a bishop or an archdeacon. But the induced character of even the most sincere converts is found wanting backbone; and as for the mass of them, some observers go the length of saying that they made more trustworthy heathens. The Protestant institution most congenial to them appears to be the Sabbath, which it is said most negroes are ready to keep every day in the year; and their taste for melancholy music takes very kindly to hymn-singing. The race is at a stage where it can assimilate little more than the emotional elements of a highly-developed religion, from whose principles it is always prone to lapse back into its own barbarous practices.

[1] "In the gloomy vault of a still leaden sky a strange sign from heaven rises on the horizon. It keeps on rising, rising, taking shapes of wonder and dread. One's first idea is of a giant volcanic eruption, of a world in explosion. Great arches form themselves in the sky, go on rising, their clear outlines, their heavy opaque masses piling on each other; you think of stone vaults ready to break down upon the world; and all is lit by an underlining of metallic sheen, pale, greenish, or copper-coloured—and still they rise. The artists who have painted the deluge, the cataclysms of the primitive world, have not imagined such fantastic aspects, such fearsome skies."—Pierre Loti's *Roman d'un Spahi.*

We are told that few converts get over the dread of their native bogeys. The world of swarming perils is for the negro thickly peopled by ghosts, more ready to do him harm than good. To propitiate or banish these shadowy powers he trusts in a system of fetish religion, strong in the troublesome observances and the foolish charms here summed up by white men as *ju-ju*, a word said to be derived from the French *joujou*. He specially reverences hideous animal forms of dread, such as the python and the shark; the monkey, the huge iguan lizard, and the leopard (which is the tiger of Africa) may make gods for him; but all his life he goes in fear of shadows and fancies. His interpreters of the

Photo. J. A. Green, Bonny

Sacrificing Fowl to the "Fever *Ju-ju*" to prevent Fever. The *Ju-ju* priests have their faces marked with chalk.

supernatural are the half-cunning, half-crazy *ju-ju* men, who turn belief to their own advantage, explaining omens, directing ordeals, exorcising diseases, and above all, counteracting the imputed witchcraft that plays a great part in spiritual terrorism. The burial of the dead calls forth the strongest exhibitions of this ugly faith, when the defunct will be furnished with things useful to him in a life like his own, and in some parts an empty gin-bottle has become the most approved monument. The favourite ornament of the "*ju-ju* house" shrines is skulls. Sacrifice is the highest function, the blood of goats being held not so efficacious as that of a man. The world-wide barbarian custom of killing slaves or wives to follow a dead man into the next world is common, and cases have been observed where these victims voluntarily sought their fate. Inland kingdoms, Ashanti, Dahomey, and Benin, gained an evil name by their bloodthirsty "customs". At Coomassie thousands of slaves used to be slaughtered yearly, the sight being as popular as a football match with us.

At least two or three thousand are known to have been killed at one royal funeral; and the bones of the deceased kings would be moistened by weekly libations of blood, as humbler ghosts are comforted by fire lit at their graves. Under the shade of so sanguinary superstition thrive other atrocious customs, such as that of killing twins, or children born with their teeth, and mothers who have borne too many children. Then secret poisoning appears to be a common crime, yet not more so than the imaginary guilt of witchcraft, to which the negro so readily attributes any misfortune that may happen to him, especially that of death, which seems natural only when it comes by violence.

Large kingdoms like Ashanti and Dahomey are exceptional instances of some tyrant having contrived to extend a rule of terror. More commonly the people, split up into small tribes, speaking countless dialects of different languages, distinguished by tribal face-marks and by variations of custom, are ruled by the petty kinglets or chiefs who make themselves such figures of fun in incongruous bits of European finery, as so often described in travellers' tales. The lowest term of their feeble organization seems to be what white men call the "House", a gathering of families for mutual trade or protection. Sometimes the tribes have recognized an overlord, who was the nucleus of a certain wider coherence, always ready to fall in pieces, and whose place is now being taken by the invading Europeans. The power of an African chief depends much on his circumstances, much on his character; and it is conditioned by usage and superstition which, answering to law, give every man some right to his own property. What he has the least right to is himself, for by his parents, by the enemies of his tribe, or by ruthless man-catchers, he is always liable to be sent into slavery, where indeed a new career may be open to him, slaves sometimes rising to the highest rank, if they escape being slaughtered by their masters or his mournful heirs, as also may be the end of their career. Slavery is the most baneful institution of negro-land, keeping neighbours in constant suspicion of each other, and encouraging congenial idleness in all who can set someone else to work for them. Christian nations have shameful memories of their past dealings with the Guinea slave-trade; now they are agreed to put down this scourge of humanity. But it is so deeply woven into African life that it will probably outlive the cannibalism still practised in some parts of this region. At least we have no longer to reproach ourselves with the horrors of a traffic by which it is calculated that in the course of two centuries over three millions of slaves were carried away from the Bonny river alone, many of them perishing on the passage, while many more lost their lives on the way to the coast.

Polygamy is the rule of domestic life here, woman being no better than a slave, bought and beaten by her husband, where lashes take the place of kisses. Houses are built of baked mud, "swish", or reeds or thatch, their walls blackened within by the central fire. Mats and calabashes make the most of the furniture; but rich men love to surround themselves with useless European trumpery, especially in the room given up to *ju-ju* fetish talismans, which may include all sorts of rubbish, "anything between a sheet of Punch and a tobacco-pipe". The staple of food is mashed grain kneaded into balls, with plantains, yams, and other vegetables, the flesh of a skinny goat or fowl as luxury, and fish when to be had. Negroes have a strong turn for noisy music and plaintive song, some form of drum being their favourite instrument, on which, skilfully

modulated, one village can sometimes talk to its neighbour almost as well as in the universal language of gesture. In some parts, as at Benin, great skill has been shown in brass and iron working; and there may be a display of gold ornaments apt to give a false idea of the country's wealth. The tribes of the coast are seldom warlike; but they have taken very kindly to trade, in which they show a native talent for sharp practice, and for such policy as trying to prevent white men from dealing directly with the interior, that would destroy the profitable business of middlemen, who swindle the "bush nigger" on one side while on the trader they try to pass off tricks of cheating and adulteration like those he first taught them.

Photo. Rev. J. T. F. Halligey

Preparing Food in a West African Village (fetish talisman on pedestal on left)

The white traders, rather than settlers, are so thinly scattered along the coast that a very summary account of their stations must suffice.

The Portuguese were originally the most active sojourners on the Guinea Coast, where their possessions have now shrunk to one stretch of broken shore south of the Gambia, with a hinderland full of hostile natives whom they cannot subdue. Off the estuaries of the Cacheo, the Geba, and the Rio Grande, lies the Bissagos archipelago, with its picturesque capital Bulama and other good harbours thrown away on what was once the leading maritime nation. Portugal occupies only a patch of the country; most of the trade is in the hands of foreign merchants; and some of the islands are said to be dens of pirates.

Portuguese Guinea is separated from British Gambia by a strip of French territory. On the other side comes the new colony of French Guinea, whose thriving port, Konakry, has already telegraph communication with Senegal, and a railway is now being pushed into the mountainous interior, where French

planters hope to develop the growth of coffee and cocoa. We are in the habit of assuming airs of superiority as colonists; but on this coast at least foreigners appear to be more enterprising and less unsuccessful than ourselves, in actual improvement of their possessions. The natives here have proved troublesome, the worst of it being the chance of collision, as has happened, between French troops and ours, both engaged on the same pacifying errand.

The next domain is Sierra Leone ("The Lion Mountain"), so called from the rocky peninsula where a British colony was founded on good intentions, for the sake of which it deserved to succeed better than it has done. In the

Freetown, Sierra Leone. (From a photograph)

eighteenth century, when the national conscience was awakening to the guilt of slavery, a philanthropic association began to repatriate freed Africans on this part of the coast, afterwards made a home for the slaves captured by our cruisers. Thus came to be gathered here an extraordinary *mélange* of different negro tribes, mixing as hardly as oil and vinegar with the sturdy natives. Unfortunately the climate is especially fatal to white men; and the negroes themselves, after two or three generations' absence, seem to have lost their power of resisting it, while in slavery they did not gain the industrious habits of free labourers. Missionaries of various churches have given them a superficial Christianity; and schools have developed in some of them a considerable degree of intelligence; yet they remain so much of grown-up children, idle, boastful, and litigious, that the free institutions too liberally granted them have had to be restricted by the power of a Crown Colony. There are some bright exceptions, souls that have risen to a true conception of Christian love and duty,

minds that have proved capable of professional ability. But the general result of a century's work is disappointment; and perhaps the most fruitful effort of missionary zeal is in the technical schools for training the African in the constructive arts that are his weak point, rather than in the smattering of book education that makes him conceited and more unwilling for work than he is by nature in a land where one carpenter will be worth a wilderness of clerks.

The capital, on its grand natural harbour, is Freetown, name commemorating a once-hopeful enterprise, which has its outward signs in a cathedral and many chapels, among the mossy and mildewed houses of 30,000 people.[1] The freed negroes' descendants are chiefly settled hereabouts and along the coast. In the background are wild tribes, who have given us some trouble; and as late as 1898 the imposition of a hut tax, five shillings annually, called forth an agitation that required the sending out of troops to reinforce the West Indian negro soldiery and Hausa police, by whom we keep order in ordinary circumstances. It is hoped that the prosperity of the colony will advance with the help of two railways now being pushed into the interior, whose rivers flow down from the Foota-Jallon mountain region. Railway communication is of special importance in this climate, where horses thrive even worse than white men, who, with all their strength sucked out of them by the African sun, are fain to let themselves be carried about in hammocks or wheeled along in go-carts by such natives as are not too proud and lazy for exertion.

A narrow channel separates the coast from the swampy Sherborough island, beyond which we have fairly turned into the Gulf of Guinea. Sierra Leone's neighbour to the east is Liberia, an independent republic, originally founded by American abolitionists as a refuge for their emancipated slaves. This experiment also has gone to show what a bad fit our measure of freedom makes for negroes. Liberia has a president, a senate, a house of representatives, a flag, a tiny fleet, a ludicrous militia, and other institutions that ape those of the great republic, including postage stamps that have been more than once altered to levy a tax upon collectors; but showy uniforms and tall talk are more easily come by than "grit" and public spirit; and the "United States of Liberia" appear a grotesque parody on a free state. The chief city, Monrovia, named after President Monro, has only a few thousand inhabitants for its bush-grown streets laid out in straight American fashion. The strongest point of the Liberians is their conceit, which makes them speak scornfully of "common niggers", supposing themselves to possess all the superiority of civilization in their love of gramophones. Sir H. H. Johnston, however, from a recent visit speaks hopefully of Liberia's progress, and of its resources in rubber, &c. Uncle Sam now shows a disposition to take under his wing this offshoot, that by "rectification" with her neighbours has lately lost territory on each side.

[1] "The country immediately around Freetown abounds in the most varied pictures of gorgeous tropical scenery; dense forests, sparkling brooks, shaded pools, and dark mangrove swamps may be found within a few minutes' walk of the town. But though nature is so prodigal of her charms, the European sees but little of them, for to loiter in the wooded solitudes means sickness, and perhaps death. The beauty of an African forest cannot be described. Gigantic trees, with flying buttresses seven or eight feet across, tower far above the feathery frondage of the palm and bamboo; creeping plants of the most delicate tracery, and covered with flowers of every hue, entwine every tree and bush, and form a net-work of festoons high overhead; birds of bright-coloured plumage fly from bough to bough, and the never-ceasing chirrup of the *cicada* alone wakes the stillness of the woods. There is an everlasting twilight in the forest; the air is cool, and the quiet and calm invite the passer-by to seek a shelter from the burning rays of the sun. But the air, though cool, is also moist and heavy, and emits an odour of decaying vegetable matter; and at nightfall a thin white mist gradually creeps from every hollow and marsh, till the whole landscape is blotted out."—Sir A. B. Ellis's *West African Sketches.*

The thus-despised natives of this coast are the Kroomen, sturdy, hearty blacks, well seasoned to the climate, and used to industry, a fact perhaps connected with domestic slavery being uncommon among them. These naked fishermen are valued by the whites for their services in loading and unloading vessels all along the Guinea shores. Their little faults, stealing for one, are looked over in consideration of the virtue, rare in Africa, of making themselves useful and being at home on the sea, where they cleverly guide their crank craft through the perilous surf; and boldly to swim in water swarming with sharks comes all in the day's work for them. A vessel needing a gang of "Kroo boys" has only to fire a gun or blow her whistle off their coast, and scores of canoefuls come racing out, eager for engagement. Old stories describe how,

Photo. Rev. J. F. T. Halligey

Visit of Kroomen to a Trading Vessel

returning from a job, they hardly needed putting ashore, but would dive off, and swim in, a mile or two, as keen to get home as to leave it. The "up-to-date" Kroo boy, however, whose native costume chiefly consists of a tattoo mark, seems to have developed the negro faculty of aping his white masters, and will lay out his earnings on gaudy European garments by which his home-coming is at once burdened and glorified. The fashion at least of his array will be taken from Europe, but a negro's taste in colour seems prompted by the parrots which our sailors bring home from this shore. The Kroo boy's special love for clothes is said to come from the fact that his other gains have to be given up to the tribe, on a principle of community which makes it the more surprising that they should be such inveterate thieves. Miss Kingsley, who calls them the most likeable of all the Africans she had to do with, christened one follower "Smiles" because of his propensity for "self-help", from which "fowls, palm-wine, old tins and bottles, and other gentlemen's wives were never safe". What surprised her was that these simple but sturdy men allowed

themselves to be taxed by the Liberian Republic, when they might "wipe it out" without much ado.

The Ivory Coast, beyond Liberia, once frequented by British traders, is now a new French colony, a shore of lagoons and estuaries with a background of forests and savannahs running into France's claims on the Upper Niger. It is too soon to speak of this region's prosperity, from which much is expected by the French. The chief place, dating only from 1900, is Bingerville, named from the explorer Captain Binger.

Next comes the Gold Coast, that has harboured several European nations, and now makes part of a British Crown Colony, extending some 300 miles inland. Accra, with 20,000 inhabitants, is the chief place, from which a railway has been opened into the interior. Cape Coast Castle, with its imposing fortifications displayed on a height, used to be the capital, where poor "L.E.L.", that popular poet in her day, died under painfully mysterious circumstances, as wife of the governor. Near Accra stands a ruined Danish fort; near Cape Coast Castle, Elmina, the oldest settlement here, originally Portuguese; and other ruined forts and deserted settlements show how white adventurers were once more numerous on this coast. Though much of it is picturesquely rocky, the climate proves as unhealthy as on the flat strand; and the European population makes a mere handful among the Fanti natives of the south. The northern part is the redoubtable Ashanti, with whose bloodthirsty kings we have had repeated wars, in which latterly their troops offered little resistance; but every campaign into these sweltering forests would be a costly undertaking in men and money.[1] Ashanti was celebrated for gold as well as for cruelty, its king's golden umbrella, golden stool, and other rich insignia gilding the desire to crush his sanguinary power; but it remains to be seen if the gold of the country has not been worked out. Cocoa plantations will perhaps prove more valuable in this promising field for civilization. A railway has got as far as Coomassie, the Ashanti capital, now seat of a British protectorate, under the Governor of the Gold Coast.

The Volta river is a considerable artery of this region, on the east of which

[1] A successful expedition against Coomassie, the Ashanti capital, has been well described by General Baden-Powell, who led the advance of an army numbering only a few hundred English soldiers, and about as many black ones, attended by more than ten thousand native carriers, timid, and stupid as beasts of burden. A way had to be cleared for a hundred miles through the dense forest that shuts off the coast from the interior, where such roads as there were, deserted for dread of the Ashantis, soon began to be choked up by the rank undergrowth. Bridges were made across the streams, and firm causeways over the swamps that must be passed. At every halting-place a camp had to be prepared in advance, where the men might sleep under cover, protected from the dangerous mists and dews; and on drawing nearer the enemy, these camps were fortified against the chance of attack at any hour. Thus the long column slowly wound onwards, unrolling behind it the telegraph wire by which the news of its success or failure might in a few minutes be flashed to England from this dark corner of Africa. Farther back from the coast the forest grew deeper and darker, yet still the native scouts could lead the way through it as if by instinct. Villages of mud huts became fewer and smaller. The road narrowed to a crooked path, shut in on either side by a wall of thick bushes, where at any step the enemy might be lurking in ambush. At night this path was like a tunnel, through which the men groped their way, now stumbling over roots, now splashing knee-deep in the mire. In the daytime they went along tormented by flies, sickened by the close heavy smell of rotting vegetation, often struck down by the heat. Through such hindrances our soldiers tramped patiently on, till, when Prempeh, the Ashanti king, saw them reach the collection of mud huts and blood-stained execution-grounds which formed his capital, he gave in without a blow, hoping to get off by promises to stop his bloodthirsty customs. But this time there was no trust in promises that had been made before only to be broken. The wretched tyrant, sucking a great nut like a baby, in vain humbled himself on the ground before our officers. He was made prisoner and taken off to the coast, carefully guarded to prevent him being killed on the way by the friends of his many victims. To our soldiers the way back seemed a wearier one, now that they were no longer kept up by the hope of a fight with that hateful race of murderers. But though they had hardly fired a shot, they were exposed to an unseen enemy more deadly than bullets. Half the men and more than half the officers had to be carried on hammocks, prostrated by fever. "How eagerly we listened for the first sound of the distant thundering surf, and longed for the first whiff of the sea breeze!"

it in part forms a natural frontier between the British colony and the German Togoland, whose narrow sea-frontage is only a matter of forty miles, but its hinderland stretches nearly ten times as far into the interior. On the coast are Lome, Porto Seguro, and Little Popo; and in the interior the Germans have founded Bismarckburg and other stations, about which experiments are being made in planting and cattle-rearing. But some few years ago the whole white population here could be counted as ten dozen or so, including a score of women, more than forty officials, and only four planters.

Togoland is neatly marked off on maps from another stretch of coast occupied by the French, who have here the harbours of Grand Popo, Whydah, and Kotonu, and have connected the coast with their hinderland by putting down the intervening kingdom of Dahomey, that gave them the same kind of trouble as Ashanti did to us. Dahomey was noted not only for its hecatombs of human sacrifice; but for its king's bodyguard of Amazons, which should have proved a stumbling-block to French gallantry. At Abomey, the capital, a French resident now controls the native prince, whose state, as reported by Commandant Toutée, chiefly consists in a show of bottles and glasses enough for a bar-room. The same traveller found in Dahomey one point for admiration, the remarkable cleanliness of the towns and village streets, where, if the king appeared, his subjects would set zealously to sweeping before him lest he might have to soil his foot with a straw. These places are sometimes connected by good roads; and often surrounded by well-kept fruit-gardens and carefully-weeded fields, so that, in spite of their sanguinary customs, the Dahomeyans cannot be utter barbarians.

The French Dahomey protectorate opens upon the Slave Coast, and the bay known as the Bight of Benin. Round this bay and the swampy Bight of Biafra at the bottom of the gulf, extends the shore of Lagos and the British territories now incorporated as Nigeria, a name found only on more recent maps. Even Macaulay's schoolboy may as yet be ignorant how we have here outlined a dominion roughly measuring 500 miles each way, with a population of perhaps two dozen millions. The coast of it is known colloquially as the "Oil Rivers", or as "The Rivers", its great produce being oil or grease extracted from the fruit of a palm abundant here, which the natives eat as butter, but which we consume in the form of soap and candles, and in the yellow stuff used for lubricating the wheels of railway carriages. Palm kernels are also a valuable article of export. Other exports that have been increasing on this coast are of india-rubber and of timber, especially dyewoods, and a teak called mahogany, which now plays a cheap part in our domestic furniture. This timber comes from the interior, where wholesome land has gathered above the tidal waters. The mouths of the Oil Rivers are hidden away in black, stinking mangrove swamps, inhabited by crocodiles, crabs, oysters, and flies, among which the only sign of human life may be a rotting hulk that once served as a station of the trade gradually pushed up these ill-famed estuaries, where it rains in torrents nearly half the year, and in the "dry weather" mists are so heavy that it is hard to keep anything unspoiled by damp and mildew.

At the western end of the Nigerian coast, the chief place is Lagos, our chief town in Guinea indeed, the "Liverpool of West Africa", which, with over 30,000 people, is capital of our Nigerian colony. Lagos has prospered through its position at the mouth of waterways ramifying into the country behind, where now runs a railway from the port to the Niger by the large inland

towns Abbeokuta and Ibadan. Here was the seat of two great native powers, Yoruba and Benin, the latter up till recent times a seat of cruel tyranny like Dahomey's; but the massacre of an English mission in 1897 led to its overthrow, and the country, kept in order by a force of Hausa constabulary, is being civilized by schools and by the encouragement of peaceful agriculture.

Southern Nigeria now includes its three provinces—Lagos, Central Niger, and East Calabar. On a projecting coast-line opens the Niger Delta, where Akassa is our chief trading-station at the mouth of the Nun, the principal navigable channel of the Niger, up which Lokoja, at the confluence of the Benue, makes at present a base for bringing our influence to bear over a pro-

Photo. J. A. Green, Bonny

Palm Oil Carriers

tectorate of some fifteen million souls on the basins of these two rivers. Farther east come several other estuaries, where trade and missionary reports have made not unfamiliar the names of our factories or stations, New Calabar, Bonny, Old Calabar, Duketown, the two last on the considerable Cross or Old Calabar River that has its rise within German boundaries. An expedition up this river has recently rooted out the grim sanctuary of the "Long Ju-Ju", a far-famed fetish oracle, hidden in a rocky gorge among thick bush, where an altar, made of guns stuck muzzle downwards in the ground, was found heaped with skulls and other native offerings, and among such relics of sacrificial rites a white goat had been tied up in a palm-tree to starve to death. So atrocious are the superstitions against which our missionaries and officials strive to make head!

The Rio del Rey, on this side, is the frontier between our dominion and the German Cameroon colony, stretching for over 200 miles round the innermost corner of the gulf to the Rio del Campo, the border of French territory. The

name of its once chief settlement, Victoria, reminds us how we were the first occupiers of Cameroons Bay; but in 1884 a country as large as a European kingdom, with some millions of people, was given over to Germany. Acquisitions so far from home being then a novelty to the fatherland, this became a very popular colony, as one may judge by the frequent mention of it in German books and newspapers; yet at the end of the century, only some 350 Germans were to be enumerated, with a smaller number of other Europeans. The Germans have fixed their seat of government at the mouth of the Cameroon River, which got its name from the crabs abundant here. Besides controlling the trade of the interior, they are making experiments in cultivation on the rich volcanic soil, that of cocoa being as yet more successful than coffee, tobacco, and tea.

The chief drawback to this rich and picturesque colony is the unhealthiness of its low swampy coast-lands, where the settlers have also had to fight for their footing against warlike natives. The plains are traversed by brimming rivers, the navigation of which soon becomes interrupted as they fall over wooded terraces on their rapid flow from the ridge of mountains behind, that in the great Cameroon Peak, a volcanic crater sometimes topped by snow, oftener by clouds, rises to about 13,000 feet, the highest landmark in West Africa, often ascended for its magnificent view. The Little Cameroon, also very conspicuous, is a much lower peak, but of more difficult access, at the other end of the range. Behind the mountains comes a little-explored expanse of savannahs and swampy rivers forming the Adamawa country; then by the course of the Logon the German protectorate stretches out a long tongue to Lake Chad, where it meets the domains of France and Britain.

The whole of the Soudan is thus in the way of being dominated by civilized powers; and if they can but keep peace with each other about their doubtful frontiers, it should be only a matter of time to give peace to this region by extirpating its causes of disturbance. It is not only settled tyrants and local wars that have to be put down, but gangs of professional slave-catchers, mostly Arabs, who take the Soudan for their preserve. The value of this black business has much decreased by the closing of its chief export markets; but it is still a profitable one where the raw material costs next to nothing; and there is a constant demand for it among peoples to whom enslavement seems as natural as it did to our forefathers. Domestic slavery in Africa is not always, indeed, such a painful lot as we might imagine. Its curse lies perhaps less heavily on the slaves than on the masters, who thus indulge their congenial cruelty, laziness, and the lust of polygamy. But the wasteful bloodshed of slave-raiding, the continual dread and suspicion kept alive by it, the desolation of depopulated regions, are crying evils that demand the interference of the European powers here truly to be looked on as "protectors".

It may be mentioned that both on the Senegambia coast and on Lake Chad, a recent international agreement has led to a rectification of frontiers between Britain and France, somewhat to the advantage of the latter, which is showing an energetic and liberal spirit in opening up the commerce of her vast African territories, while she has been pushing them to the north in an extension of her protectorate over the Moorish tribes behind the coast. Our government is now constructing a railway from the Niger navigation, which, running inland to Bida and Kano, should before long tap the native cotton fields of Northern Nigeria. Tin is reported as another resource of this region.

# CENTRAL AFRICA

## THE EQUATORIAL FORESTS

As must often be the case in our survey of the world, the Cameroon country makes a debatable land between two different regions, here merging together in their characteristics. The Soudan is mainly a zone of savannahs, with woods and jungles as subordinate features. Below this comes the forest zone of Central Africa, still imperfectly known, where grass and bush lands in turn seem dominated by vast and thick growths of timber. A new category of population, also, now appears. In the north, the people were mainly Hamites, or intruding Semites. The Soudan is the country of the negro, more or less modified. Near the Equator we come among the Bantu race, whose tribes extend over all the southern half of the continent, distinguished from the true negro most clearly by their forms of language. Among this probably negroid stock, scattered communities of dwarfish aborigines hold out in secluded spots; and by way of the great lakes, on the east side there has been an invasion of Moslem Arabs, perhaps of Malays, too, on the coast, by whom the pagan Bantus are stigmatized as Kaffirs, that is to say "unbelievers".

The main stock of population exhibits considerable varieties of custom and culture, answering to the circumstances. Many tribes, not always the most degraded, are cannibals, either by the ceremonial eating of certain parts of an enemy, or in the practical everyday shape of using human flesh for food. In some parts this seems an honourable sepulchre for one's relatives; in others villages are found trading their corpses to one another, so much humanity being felt that people do not care to eat their own kinsmen; while a nascent sense of shame may be shown by the readiness with which they will deny or conceal such practices before white men. All of them are heathen, except where on the east side Islam has penetrated into the forests, or here and there Christian missionaries have made a clearing among native superstitions, always ready to relapse into wildness. But the shades of barbarism are so many and so mingled, that we must be content with a general view of dark-minded ignorance, with its fear of sorcery and of evil spirits, shadows of real ever-present dangers, and its pagan rites, that for their highest object of adoration may have an idol as imposing as the Aunt Sally of a fair. Nor can we linger to distinguish all the fashions in which these black or rich-brown bodies make themselves horrible, hideous, and ludicrous to our eyes: the various plaitings, twistings, shavings, depilations, and trainings into mops, chignons and tails of their hair or thin beard; the filing, blackening, or extraction of the teeth that pass for becomingness; the cicatrizations, daubings, and chalkings of the skin; the iron

or brass rings with which their limbs are loaded, as their heads with disfiguring pendants; the horns, feathers, shells, teeth, bones, bits of skin, "strange tags to stranger tackle", strung about either sex as charms or ornaments; the hanging breasts of the women, the unshamed nudity often displayed by not the least moral among these children of nature; their queerly-varied forms of salutation, and all their absurd or revolting customs. For dress, the one chief garment is a waistcloth worn in various ways; and where cotton cloth does not reach them, skins, bark, grass, or leaves come in as sufficient cover. The same abundant material supplies houses, which may again be more solidly built of stakes or reeds, and gathered into considerable villages. Their furniture is for the most

The Burial of a Native Chief at Bumba, Congo State: the "shrouding" ceremony.
(From a photograph)

part scanty; but here and there ingenuity is shown in adapting blocks, roots, or forked branches as seats, or as pillows, made sometimes necessary by their cumbrous head-dressing. Pottery, baskets, and nets are found among them; and some tribes are clever in smelting and forging iron. Spears, knives, and poisoned arrows of reed are their chief weapons, with shields of thick hide; but they take readily to cheap guns and bad powder brought among them by traders. Fire helps them to hollow out great trunks as canoes, the paddles of which are often skilfully and elaborately carved. Such are the features kept shifting before us in travellers' accounts of this mass of human life, where the most abiding impression is one of continual distrust both of man and of nature, and of morals far from Arcadian; but now and then, like a sunlit glade in the dank forest, shines out a trait of the gentler nature that makes mankind truly akin, a rare instance of gratitude or devotion, a purer manifestation of the highest of animal instincts, a touch of human pity for the friendless stranger, a code of religious honour,

as shown in the wide-spread custom of making "blood brotherhood" that mixes the life of two men in a mutual pledge to observe friendship towards each other's people. One of the darkest shades of life among all tribes is supplied by the ever-ready accusation of witchcraft, called forth by any natural death, accusations from which the most innocent can clear themselves only by collusion with the sorcerers, who direct such ordeals as dipping the hand in scalding water, and drinking a bitter draught which is either thrown off by its very strength, or overcomes the senses in a manner taken for sure proof of guilt.

Rimmed by mountains and filled in by forests, Central Africa has on its west side especially a more or less wet climate for most of the year. The heavy rains and hot suns of the Equator force an evergreen luxuriance, among which spongy or slimy swamps are the blighted spots. A sand-bank, bared above falling waters in the short dry season may in turn seem an oasis to the eye wearied by a monotony of exuberant foliage; but soon the seeds of life root themselves on the naked patch, to skin it over with tender hues. The river-courses are naturally the most thickly wooded, first with the dark growth of mangroves and screw-pines, stilted above the mud flats, higher up with a more wholesome foliage, of varied tints, sometimes illuminated by wreathed and festooned flowers and glossy shoots, the gray trunks, too, mottled by bright patches of moss or fungus. The rivers having made the first roads into this hot-house of vegetation, travellers have too much represented it as almost unbroken forest. But further examination shows openings of Brobdingnagian grass, often with blades like swords or spears, growing far above a man's head, and showering down upon him barbed seeds to make his passage more painful. Africa is richest in prickles and stings, and in thorny plants great and small. "Her grasses are coarse and wound like knives and needles; her reeds are tough and tall as bamboos; her creepers and convolvuli are of cable thickness and length; her thorns are hooks of steel." Sometimes the trees are sprinkled or clustered over savannahs that may offer richer pasture and less oppressive landscapes. Sometimes the ground bears nothing but scrubby bush. The greater part of the surface seems more or less to be thinly wooded. Only in portions, yet vast portions, is it entirely covered by the primæval African forest, where the trees form a twilight shade with their thick canopy of foliage, reared a hundred feet in the air, their interlaced branches half-hidden by fluttering moss and creeping parasites twining about them like snakes, by climbing ferns and grasses, that rise out of a dank tangle of weeds, grass, and bushes, where men have fancied themselves walking at the bottom of the sea. But again the warring tribes of plant life may be found strangling or stifling each other in a struggle for existence, that becomes fiercest at the top, leaving the shaded ground comparatively open.[1]

[1] "Sometimes for hours we passed among thousands upon thousands of gray-white columns of uniform height (about 100 to 150 feet); at the top of these the boughs branched out and interlaced among each other, forming a canopy or ceiling, which dimmed the light even of the equatorial sun to such an extent that no undergrowth could thrive in the gloom. The statement of the struggle for existence was published here in plain figures, but it was not, as in our climate, a struggle against climate mainly, but an internecine war from over-population. Now and again we passed among vast stems of buttressed trees, sometimes enormous in girth; and from their far-away summits hung great bush-ropes, some as straight as plumb-lines, others coiled round, and intertwined among each other, until one could fancy one was looking on some mighty battle between armies of gigantic serpents, that had been arrested at its height by some magic spell All these bush-ropes were as bare of foliage as a ship's wire-rigging, but a good many had thorns. I was very curious as to how they got up straight, and investigation showed me that many of them were carried up with a growing tree. The only true climbers were the *calamus* and the rubber vine (*landolphia*), both of which employ hook tackle. Some stretches of this forest were made up of thin, spindly-stemmed trees of great height, and among these stretches I always noticed the ruins of some forest giant, whose death by lightning or by his superior height having given the demoniac tornado

In those gigantic jungles animal life is so hidden away that they might often seem uninhabited. But the silence of the forest is only a first impression of what appears natural to a gloomy solitude. Humboldt tells us how, in a South American forest, one has but to listen for a faint undertone of ubiquitously invisible life; and Stanley had the same experience in Africa. "I hear the grindings of millions of mandibles, the furious hiss of a tribe just alarmed or about to rush to battle, millions of tiny wings rustling through the nether air, the march of an insect tribe under the leaves, the startling leap of an awakened mantis, the chirp of some eager and garrulous cricket, the buzz of an ant-lion, the roar of a bull-frog." Huge as well as tiny creatures may well escape the eye amid so bewildering a confusion of stems and leaves, where man needs the keen sense of the savage to peer a yard into the matted undergrowth through which he must push or squeeze or cut his path, unless it have been broken for him by the big pachyderms that are at home in such a forest. These formidable beasts are commonly willing enough to give him a wide berth; but he must always beware of disturbing the sluggish quiet of serpents, from the giant python and the loathsome puff-adder to the tiny asp almost invisible among the sand and withered grass it imitates in colour, but one of the deadliest of its kind. This preservative trick of mimicry, illustrated by the chameleon's changing hues, is notoriously characteristic of Africa, and helps the effect of animal life seeming drowned in a flood of vegetation. There is the well-known mantis, the living image of a leaf, and the branching stick-insect, which one may snatch up to drive away a whip-snake that at first sight seemed a green twig, while another insect exactly resembles a wisp of dry grass. There are tortoises like stone slabs, and beetles which one might take for pebbles till they begin to roll away. There are beautifully-striped butterflies that seem flowers till they take flight, and others whose folded wings might well be mistaken for dead leaves. The same protection against swarming enemies is given by nature to certain spiders appearing to be shrivelled berries of the bushes on which they hang. The crocodile itself, lying lazily in the sun, might often pass for a muddy log till some victim come within reach of its snap.

It is tiny foes rather than huge ones that are most feared here. More than one explorer has mentioned countless earwigs as among the worst plagues of his tropical journey. The fire that scares away lions and leopards only attracts biting spiders and venomous scorpions to his rest, where he lies already maddened by buzzing and stinging tormentors. Over his face crawl bloated cockroaches, and centipedes perhaps half a foot long, like a scaly caterpillar walking on pins. The very caterpillars here will sting and squirt venom. The ground swarms with ticks that lodge in the bare feet of natives. As if Africa had not pests enough of its own, it has imported the American "jigger", a burrowing flea, that from the west-coast ports has skipped triumphantly in half a century almost across the continent. Our familiar parasites, all the foul tribe of bugs and such-like, are so common as hardly to seem worth mentioning.

wind an extra grip on him, had allowed sunlight to penetrate the lower regions of the forest; and then evidently the seedlings and saplings, who had for years been living a half-starved life for light, shot up. They seemed to know that their one chance lay in getting with the greatest rapidity to the level of the top of the forest. No time to grow fat in the stem. No time to send out side branches, or any of those vanities. Up, up to the light level, and he among them who reached it first won in this game of life or death; for when he gets there he spreads out his crown of upper branches, and shuts off the life-giving sunshine from his competitors, who pale off and die, or remain dragging on an attenuated existence waiting for another chance, and waiting sometimes for centuries."—Miss M. Kingsley, *Travels in West Africa.*

After the mosquito of damp quarters, many legions of ants make themselves terrible by their petty pincers that may cover one with a shirt of Nessus. The most formidable kind are the soldier ants, which attack literally in regiments, it is said, commanded by officers, and are not to be turned aside from their line of march. The fiercest beasts of prey are reported to fly before them, and when they storm into a house, they at least do the service of clearing it of rats, mice, and other vermin — a task that might baffle the Pied Piper of Hamelin. One of the most horrible of native tortures consists in laying human victims, naked and bound, in the way of such tiny destroyers. The
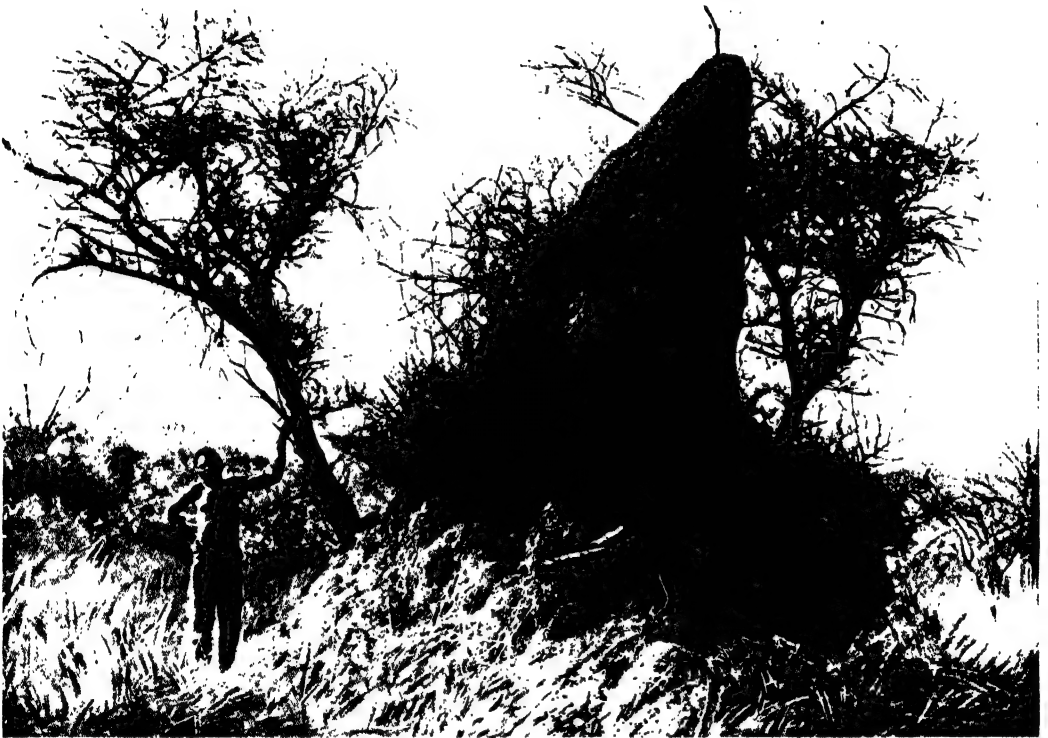
Photo. N. P. Edwards

Giant Ant-Hill

termites, known as white ants, are for their part vegetarians, who, sallying forth from their tall fortresses, mine their way by choice through wood, which they leave in a state of riddled ruin. Some kinds of timber, the ugly mangrove for one, have this virtue, that the white ants seem disposed to leave it alone. These creatures, making havoc of houses and telegraph-posts, may be scared away by the smell of petroleum, and are shy of men's vicinity. Perhaps the most mischievous insect in Africa is the tsetse-fly, that infests certain low-lying tracts. Its bite is death to horses and oxen, so that in passing through its domain the explorer often finds himself brought to a stand-still by the loss of his means of transport; and this plague, little bigger than a horse-fly, sometimes proves a better defence of wild beasts against the hunter than all their formidable teeth and claws.

The most valuable productions of these forests, where they could be brought to the sea, used to be their choice timber, ebony and red-wood, the ivory of

their elephants and hippopotamuses, and palm-oil in some parts. In our time the chief export grows to be the here abundant india-rubber, more and more used in the industries of civilization. The base of this material is *caoutchouc*, the milky juice of a family of plants, easily extracted by making incisions in the bark, and letting the sap flow out to coagulate in wooden vessels. The African rubber comes not from trees but from vines, which the people are apt to destroy in their improvident eagerness to meet a demand that tempts them also to adulterate it with less valuable ingredients. The trade has thus been crippled in some parts of the coast; but the opening up of the interior forests taps new sources of supply, which under careful management should reward exploitation, as it does in the Congo State territories. In some parts gutta-percha supplies a coarser form of elastic material. Several kinds of palm are found, but the prominent form is the acacia and other thorny trees.

In edible fruits, roots, and berries, the region is so prolific as to encourage the thriftless and idle ways of its inhabitants. Cereal crops are exceptional in woodland clearings, about which such European luxuries as pine-apples run wild, sometimes so plentiful as to make fodder for pigs and goats. The staples of food are the easily-cultivated banana and the manioc or cassava root, known to us as tapioca, in its natural state poisonous till the juice has been pressed out of the flour, that can then be used as bread or porridge. Yams, sweet-potatoes, ground-nuts, sugar-cane, melons, gourds, and other vegetables are grown, several of the above-mentioned plants having been introduced from America, to become readily naturalized. The palm supplies both butter and wine. Cattle are not common in the woodlands, where the people keep rather goats and fowls, sometimes pigs and sheep. They are by no means vegetarians on principle, and when by hook or by crook their cunningly bold hunters have brought about the death of some big beast, the whole community give themselves up to an orgy of indigestion that favours the seeing of many evil spirits.

So far these remarks apply chiefly to the western side of the continent, where in this zone the forests are predominant, fed by rains that fall every month in the year, sometimes for days at a time, with intervals of blue sky and cloud gatherings on the same gigantic scale as the vegetation.[1] The great Congo Forest once stretched across to the central lakes, but has diminished through the wasteful clearings of the tribes, and through easily-kindled fires

[1] "In Africa, during the rainy season, the cloudscapes are pictures in themselves. Those noble masses of vapour which begin in tiny shapes of blue-gray over the sharp horizon of the Congo, gradually lift themselves up, throw out wings and limbs, and while their dark bellies stretch away in exaggerated perspective till they vanish into haze, their great snowy heads and shining arms expand over the heavens as if they would, in their rapacity, conquer and swallow all the cerulean blue. Then in their moments of proudest development they break up like unwieldy empires. One province after another deserts and floats away into independence, and the one great cloud that erewhile occupied three-quarters of the sky gives birth to many cloudlets, each with a dark-gray body and a white border, and these in their divisions and separations let the sunlight pierce their ranks through and through with many darts and broadswords of gold, and thus, thoroughly disorganized and disunited, the cloud titans are swept from off the blue heavens by their fickle friend the wind, and for a while the sky is empty and serene. But not for long: as I am eating my lunch under the shade of the palm groves, the air becomes stifling; over the water is a shimmering reverberation of heat, the crocodiles on the distant banks positively gasp for breath with expanded jaws, the flies forget to bite, the birds and the insects cease their chirping—there is an awful silence. Something is going to happen, and everything animate is conscious of the suspense and the impending struggle. Faraji comes to my retreat, and, pointing to the line of open water where the Congo meets the sky, his finger indicates a faint purplish nebula or haze, which is shapeless and yet has limits to its small extent. It is the *avant garde* of an awful army, the real trained hosts of the storm-fiend, who in his struggle for the empire of the sky now puts forth his utmost strength. The former clouds were but a slight skirmishing force in comparison, and the Zanzibaris, my weather guides, paid no attention to their movements; but now they all come to me, although the sky is a hard, unsullied blue, save for the purplish stain near the eastern horizon, and say with emphasis, 'Rain is coming'."—Sir H. H. Johnston's *The River Congo*.

that scorch rapidly over open spaces, once the sun has sucked up the dankness exposed to its rays. As the forests shrink off the slopes, nature becomes accomplice with man in the work of devastation, stinting the rainfall that fed that "boundless continuity of shade". In the lake region is reached a great central ridge, rising into a temperature that checks the exuberance nursed by a union of heat and moisture. Then, on the other and narrower side of this ridge, different conditions prevail, so that the rainfall may come short over large tracts of arid upland, such as are so common in most parts of Africa, while on the low sea-board we again find an unwholesome profusion of warm moisture.

The central region, then, must be distinguished as divided into the eastern mountain ridges and elevated lake beds, and the Western Congo basin, with their coast-lands on either side. Let us enter it by the equatorial shores on either side of the Congo's mouth, a region once known as Lower Guinea.

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## THE CONGO COAST

As we go southwards round the Gulf of Guinea, hard-and-fast lines of difference are found as invisible to most men's eyes as the Equator. From an elevated background rapid rivers flow down to reach the sea over a feverish jungly coast, after being lost in forests that grow richer and ranker by gradual transition. The ethnologist distinguishes the Bantu speech of mongrel negro tribes, but their savagery, their superstition, their resources are much on a level with those met farther north. Of famous states there is no question here, unless such a title may be given to the old "empire" of Congo, whose rulers early came under Portuguese influence to the extent of receiving a bastard Christianity that has reverted to the native jungle of misbelief. The Portuguese were long predominant along this coast, as they still are south of the Congo. Between the Congo and the Cameroon colony, for 900 miles, the shore is now owned by France, except for two enclaves, the Spanish island of Corisco, with the opposite mainland basin of the Muni river in the northern part, and the smaller Portuguese Cabinda above the Congo mouth. Beyond the Crystal Mountains and other ranges that make the coast watershed, the colony of French Congo extends far inland to the French Soudan, covering more than 200,000 square miles; but much of this country is hardly known to its new masters, who, on the coast, are numbered by hundreds, not all of them Frenchmen. France has ambitious projects in this hinderland, such as that of a railway to Lake Chad. In the meanwhile her ownership of a long stretch of the Congo's right bank gives her hope that she may stretch this as yet unprofitable dominion southwards if the Congo Free State should go to pieces.

The chief French settlement is Libreville, on the Gaboon estuary, which, filled by short mountain streams, makes a commodious harbour. Farther down, the peninsula or island of Cape Lopez and Nazareth Bay mark the delta of the Ogowé river, the largest in the colony. It has a course of 700 miles, and its rapid flow is regulated by a great lake reservoir, while its sandy bed makes it a little less unhealthy than other water channels of the region; but it is navigable only for some 200 miles, up to a series of rushing cataracts. Farther south opens the Kuilu river, near the mouth of which stands the old town ot

Loango. This river, though not so long, is less broken; and the French expect to find in it a waterway towards their inland station Brazzaville on the Congo.

The wet season here is not so much to be distinguished as its drier intervals, a short one in winter, and a long one answering to our summer, which brings comparatively cold weather. The equatorial coast has a rainfall of 100 inches or more, keeping its forests dank and lush all the year round. Sandal-wood, ebony, dye-woods, india-rubber, and palm-oil have been the chief exports, while the French are now experimenting in the growth of coffee, cotton,

Native Hut at Lambaréné, on the Ogowé River. (From a photograph taken for the Paris Society for Evangelical Missions.)

tobacco, vanilla, &c., and in the making of spirits from pine-apples and other fruit. In Central Africa the vine is found running wild; but the natives know nothing of wine, though intoxicating beverages are brewed from millet, from bananas, and from honey, besides the fermenting sap of various palms described as tasting like cider, or by another traveller, like "stone ginger-beer".

It would be an endless task to expatiate on the rich vegetation native here, of which Miss Kingsley, Mr. Winwood Reade, and other travellers have given us so many tempting kodak-pictures snatched amid the darkness of the forests. More than one visitor distinguishes the beauty of Corisco Island, the nucleus of the Spanish settlement, "a little world in miniature, with its miniature forests, miniature prairies, miniature mountains, miniature rivers, miniature lakes, and miniature precipices on the sea-shore". The terraces and mountains of the back country, also, show grand landscape effects of weather-worn peaks, water-cut gorges, and rushing cascades of the rivers. But it is everywhere a

deadly loveliness, haunted by fever for the unseasoned white man, even above the swampy range of mosquitoes. On the more airy heights he seems not to get free from that plague, his only safety being found three miles out at sea, where the subtle infection cannot follow him.

This side of Equatorial Africa has some peculiarities of animal life. The lion is not at home here, nor the rhinoceros, nor the giraffe. The striking feature is the presence of manlike apes, notably the gorilla, which appears nearest in its hideous parody to the human form. Dwelling, seldom seen, in the darkest forest recesses, from which it will slink out to steal fruit on the edge of the clearings, this rare creature lends its apparitions to wild were-wolf legends that make it more a bugbear of the natives than even the leopard's bloodthirsty beauty. The gorilla feeds on leaves, nuts, and berries, and shows no desire to harm men; but when attacked its ferocity is appalling, and its strength so great that it will kill the hunter with a single blow of its paw, bending, crushing, or crunching his gun like a stalk in its wounded rage. The late Mr. Du Chaillu had the credit of introducing us to what long passed for a myth, and at first his gorilla-hunting stories were treated as romance.[1] Other adventurers have not always been successful in gaining sight of this shy animal, whose habitation seems restricted to the forests between the coast-lands and the mountains behind within a few degrees of the Equator. The chimpanzee, object of similar superstitious fancies, has a wider range over the interior forests of this region and north into the Soudan. More than one other kind of tree-climbing and nest-building apes appear to be confined to Equatorial West Africa.

Mr. Du Chaillu states that in one stretch above the Equator the hippopotamus is missing, elsewhere so plentiful in the West African water-courses, where also abound the crocodile, and, near the coast, the *manatee* or sea-cow. Huge turtles may be "turned" on the shore; and Chinese aldermen would find abundant feasting on the fins of sharks, among which harmless whales sometimes put in an appearance in these waters, almost clouded at times by great flocks of sea-fowl. A naturalist, till struck down by fever, might have a happy time among the forest birds and butterflies, but would have to keep a look-out for great pythons and other snakes coiled among the thick leaves and on the slimy soil, where they seem at home in this overgrown Eden.

In the woods are also found elephants, wild bulls, deer, and other game that help the natives to eke out a lazy living on their tropical fruits; and by

[1] "The underbrush swayed rapidly just ahead, and presently before us stood an immense male gorilla. He had gone through the jungle on his all-fours; but when he saw our party he erected himself and looked us boldly in the face. He stood about a dozen yards from us, and was a sight I think I shall never forget. Nearly six feet high (he proved four inches shorter), with immense body, huge chest, and great muscular arms, with fiercely-glaring large deep-gray eyes, and a hellish expression of face, which seemed to me like some nightmare vision: thus stood before us this king of the African forest. He was not afraid of us, he stood there, and beat his breast with his huge fists till it resounded like an immense bass-drum, which is their mode of offering defiance; meantime giving vent to roar after roar. The roar of the gorilla is the most singular and awful noise heard in these African woods. It begins with a sharp *bark*, like an angry dog, then glides into a deep bass *roll*, which literally and closely resembles the roll of distant thunder along the sky, for which I have sometimes been tempted to take it where I did not see the animal. So deep is it that it seems to proceed less from the mouth and throat than from the deep chest and vast paunch. His eyes began to flash fiercer fire as we stood motionless on the defensive, and the crest of short hair which stands on his forehead began to twitch rapidly up and down, while his powerful fangs were shown as he again sent forth a thunderous roar. And now truly he reminded me of nothing but some hellish dream-creature—a being of that hideous order, half-man half-beast, which we find pictured by old artists in some representations of the infernal regions. He advanced a few steps—then stopped to utter that hideous roar again—advanced again, and finally stopped when at a distance of about six yards from us. And here, just as he began another of his roars, beating his breast in rage, we fired and killed him. With a groan which had something terribly human in it, and yet was full of brutishness, he fell forward on his face."—P. B. Du Chaillu's *Equatorial Africa*.

the watersides they depend much on fishing. Industry is a lesson they are so slow to learn, that for working here the French have imported not only coolies from the higher Guinea coast, but Tonkinese and Annamese convicts all the way from Indo-China. When first known to French traders the leading people on the coast were the black Mpongwes and kindred Bantu tribes, who in looks and manners are rather above the common negro. Since then, these people have been much encroached on by the warlike Fans, who keep pushing their way from the interior and supplanting weaker natives in virtue of a robust character, not at all points desirable; for one thing, some of them still retain at least a ceremonial cannibalism. They are clever iron-workers, and have a

Photo. J. T. N. Yankah

Fanti Artisans

remarkable currency of miniature axe-heads made by themselves. Their origin seems doubtful. Some writers have identified them with the Fulahs, who play the same intruding part in the Soudan; but against this theory their language is stated to be a Bantu one. Others look on the Fans as an offshoot of the Niam-Niam people, whose seats are far off in the north-east, between the Congo and the Nile, where they have attracted attention by their union of superior qualities with a remarkable appetite for human flesh. On this coast the Cabinda people, in the small Portuguese territory just north of the Congo mouth, bear an exceptionally industrious reputation like the Kroomen of Upper Guinea.

For the moment, let us pass by the mouth of the Congo river to visit the present mainland possessions of Portugal. The Portuguese, as so long in possession and so largely mixed with native blood, seem at a certain advantage in colonizing here; but their mongrel tolerance of the climate extends to lowering

the standard of civilization; and this, last among Christian people, clung to the accursed slave-trade, said to be still carried on by some of them in secret though formally prohibited; a number of prominent merchants and army officers have recently been sentenced to transportation, at Lisbon, for causing a native revolt by cruelty and slave-trading. Portugal has also used its settlements as a dumping-ground for convicts, "a shameful and unblessed thing to take the scum of people, and wicked condemned men, to be the people with whom you plant". In its colony of Angola, south of the Congo, Portuguese occupation hardly goes beyond the alluvial coast-land, 600 miles long, behind which extends an upland and mountainous hinderland of half a million square miles with some millions of Bantu subjects, broken into feeble tribes. Such prosperity as Angola ever had chiefly came from slave-dealing; fiscal restrictions cripple its trade in natural productions; of attempts at planting, coffee seems to be the least unsuccessful; and the climate is so inhospitable that imported cattle do not thrive even on the highlands, the very dogs and cats soon degenerating. The best that can be said of Angola is its making a fine show on maps; yet the Portuguese look jealously on other invaders of this coast, where, north of the Congo, their claims have been restricted to the small district of Cabinda, though elsewhere monuments of their domination are still found in ruined *barracoons*, or slave-pens, near which hundreds of corpses would be flung out into the woods, sickening relics of "man's inhumanity to man".

The capital of Angola is St. Paul de Loanda, commonly called Loanda, one of the oldest cities on this coast, distinguished by a stately cathedral, among other churches, but containing under 20,000 inhabitants and going to decay, now that its *patios* for storing slaves are empty, and that its harbour seems in danger of being silted up. The picturesque Benguella, farther south, appears to be rising in the world through an honest trade in ivory, gum, wax, &c. But the most promising port is the younger one, Mossamedes, in the south, which has a more healthy climate, refreshed by cooler sea-currents, and draws upon some inland settlements, among them one of emigrant Boers, who at one time began to put new blood into Portuguese sluggishness, but were discouraged by the backwardness of this adopted government.

From those three points railways start into the mountains and plateaux of the little-known interior, that recently begun from Lobito Bay, near Benguella, having the ambitious design of pushing on a thousand miles to connect with the line through Rhodesia. Railway communications seem the more valuable for the colony, as its short streams are mostly choked up at their mouths, and interrupted by romantic falls that interfere with their use as ways of business. The principal river is the Coanza, 700 miles long, which divides the country into two parts. North of this it shares the vegetable luxuriance, the moist heat, and the unhealthiness of the tropics. But already about the Congo mouth the woods have become scattered among savannahs, and the opener surface begins to reveal more plainly the typical conformation of table-lands rising from a flat rim of shore, that has suggested the comparison of Africa to an inverted plate. Southwards the tropical characteristics rapidly fall away in such a change as we have seen proceeding from the other side of the Equator. Forests give place to steppes, perennial to intermittent streams; the rainfall diminishes; the air grows less oppressive but the soil less rich: Mossamedes, environed by bare sands, has to import firewood in return for its fish; and

beyond the Cunene river that makes the southern frontier, we approach what may be called a South African Sahara. To this region we shall return in dealing with the Zambesi basin.

Off the coast of the Cameroons and French Congo lie a notable group of volcanic islands, shared between Spain and Portugal. The largest and northernmost of these is Fernando Po, irreverently nicknamed "Fanny Po", but by its discoverer of that name originally christened *Formosa*, a title it well deserves by luscious scenery rising into a forest-clad cone over 10,000 feet high, which seems a replica of the Cameroon Peak opposite. This island was for a

Photo. B. Grant

Jamestown, St. Helena

time in English hands, as shown by the name of its one town and magnificent harbour, Clarence, which the Spaniards have changed into Santa Isabel. Among its Bubi natives, Miss Kingsley found fifty-two white laymen and fifty-four priests, besides Protestant teachers. Unfortunately, where every prospect pleases, a treacherous climate stifles the development of the island's fertility. The same has to be said of the rest of the group. St. Thomas, the principal Portuguese island, which lies almost on the Equator, used to be known as the "Dutchman's Grave", when it was in the hands of Holland, yet it is said to be the least unhealthy of all. This also culminates in a magnificent peak (7000 feet), below which thrive plantations of cocoa, coffee, sugar, quinine, &c. The smaller Prince's Island belongs to Portugal; but the last of the group, Anno Bon ("Good Year"), has passed to Spain.

Here, too, may be mentioned the small volcanic islands Ascension and St. Helena, lying far out in the Atlantic, where they once made more impor-

tant houses of call for our ships, before the way to India had been shortened by the Suez Canal. Ascension, with its little capital Georgetown, may well have been rated on the books of the Admiralty as a man-of-war, for it has a population of hundreds, governed by a naval officer as a fortified coaling station. Its most notable production is turtles, often as large as the table on which they may come to figure in the form of soup, which, if all stories are true, may be mocked by conger-eels. St. Helena, which counts its people by a few thousands and feeds many goats on its mountainous heights, was formerly in the hands of the Portuguese, then of the Dutch. Its capital, Jamestown, has an excellent harbour, the sea being so deep that a vessel may lie with her yards touching the rugged rocks that rise in sheer cliffs to a height of 1200 feet. This island is, of course, most famous as the cage in which Napoleon eat his heart out in undignified squabbles, till in 1821 he followed so many a mother's son he had sent down untimely to Hades. Of late it came back into newspaper note as a depôt of Boer prisoners of war, who here were not so much *dépaysés* as in Ceylon. Forbiddingly bare as St. Helena's first aspect may be, it encloses nooks of green pasture and foliage, making this no unpleasant residence, with sea-breezes to keep down the heat of its position near 15 degrees of south latitude.

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## THE CONGO BASIN

The Congo, once known to us as the Zaire, pours more water into the sea than any river but the Amazon. Though a thousand miles shorter than the Nile, it has a larger basin, through which it sweeps in a great horseshoe bend, its tributaries draining 1,600,000 square miles. This basin is a gradually sloping central plain, once the bed of an inland sea, shut in by heights that make but an inconsiderable parting between the Congo streams and those of the Zambesi, of the Nile, and of Lake Chad. The head-waters of the Congo come from the lake and mountain region where Livingstone in vain sought the sources of the Nile. Till our own generation it was hardly known beyond its lowest reach, discovered by the Portuguese and traced 175 miles upwards by Captain Tuckey in 1816. It was Sir H. M. Stanley who, following up Livingstone's explorations of its unknown upper waters, found himself led into the great central river, and traced its devious course for 3000 miles, to where it breaks through the western coast range in an estuary several miles broad, which seems gradually being choked up into such a delta as obstructs the mouth of other African rivers, by the burden of its flood discolouring the Atlantic for many a league. Stanley, *Bula Matadi*, "Breaker of Stones", as the natives admiringly called him, was the real founder of the government that to them is still known by this reverent nickname.

The greater part of the Congo basin forms the Congo Free State, which with a narrow neck of coast-line about the mouth opens out behind like a gourd as a territory of 900,000 square miles, covering the whole of the vast river-plain up to the lakes, with the exception of part of the right bank included in the hinderland of French Congo. The Congo State made a new departure in African enterprise. Originally an international undertaking, founded on a mixture of scientific, philanthropic, and commercial interests, it was shaped out by Stanley and other

pioneers of different nationalities, under the patronage of King Leopold II of Belgium, who was personally the sovereign of this new realm, largely financed from his private resources. The seat of government was fixed at Brussels; and even while nominally a free state, practically this became a Belgian colony, many times as large as the little kingdom by which it is dominated. Belgium, under the king's will, and in virtue of advances made by it to the new state, had a right recurring every ten years to take over the sovereignty; and in 1908 the transference of authority was made, not without hot parliamentary opposition, the enterprise all along having been unpopular with part of the nation, none the less so when it proved no such success as was expected.

Hitherto the Congo State ranked as an independent power, recognized by all civilized nations, with a blue flag spangled by gold stars, an army and militia of 12,000 blacks under white officers, and a debt both to its king and to Belgium. Happy is the country that has had no history, exclaims the philosopher. This one has had only too much history of an obscure sort, reported from time to time in Europe by soon-forgotten newspaper paragraphs on the result of campaigns and treaties affecting regions as large as European kingdoms. It is not impossible that the last page of its annals may be before long the record of a division between its powerful neighbours, perhaps after a war that will shake half of Europe, woeful end to a design hailed as a new epoch in the comity of nations. At present its status is as Belgium's one dependency.

As yet, indeed, the intentions of the promoters seem hardly borne out. A considerable export of india-rubber, ivory, palm-oil, &c., has been developed; coffee and other plantations are hopefully started; but it is complained that the administration lets the gains go into private hands, and certainly the free-trade promised at the outset has been restricted. While welcomed by some native tribes, the new state has had much trouble not only with its barbarian subjects, but with the Arab slave-hunters who made a formidable power in the north. Mutinies have had to be put down in the native army, raised not without pressure; and forced labour is another grievance of tribes so little used to discipline or to industry that West Indian negroes and even Chinamen were imported for the making of the Congo railway. Charges of cruelty are freely brought against the ill-paid and inexperienced Belgian officials, one of whom distinguished himself by hanging an English trader upon very slight evidence; and his trial only brought in a Belgian verdict of popular heroism. This is not a solitary instance of brutality exercised on European intruders; then oppression of the natives seems invited by a system of giving officials a commission on the ivory and rubber they can gather at their stations, armed force being used to awake commercial activity among the tribes. If half the stories told against these officials be true, their high-handed management of the country makes a scandalous set-off to the abolition of slavery. The climate, an alternation of moist and dry equatorial heat, is very trying to Europeans; nor do the conditions of service tempt the best class of white men to a country where some two thousand of them, officials, traders, missionaries, and all, are scattered as hermits at remote stations among a black population of twenty or thirty millions.

At the mouth of the river stands Banana, a group of factories on the sandy tongue shutting in a labyrinth of creeks and islands like palm-houses moored in the stream that mirrors their malachite and emerald hues. By the main channel, ocean-going vessels ascend 70 miles to Boma, the capital, finely situated

among rocky hills, its buildings of wood, iron, and brick, with a tramway to join the upper and lower quarters, as yet looking small and raw for the chief town of such a vast country. Navigation is practicable still higher to Matadi; but here it is interrupted by a long series of cataracts headed by the Livingstone Falls, that have necessitated the making of a railway roughly laid for 260 miles over Swiss-like mountains to the port at the mouth of a lake 25 miles long and 15 broad, bearing the modest title of Stanley Pool, into which the Congo opens. Near this port stands the town Leopoldville, that may one day become the metropolis. On the opposite side is the French station Brazzaville, named from the explorer De Brazza, whose countrymen hope to divert a good deal of the Congo trade through their own territory, hence bordering the right bank up to the confluence of the Ubangi. On this north side of the lake the name Cliffs of Dover given

Photo. R. C. Phillips

Trading Establishment at Banana, Congo River

to its white shore is a hint that neither Frenchman nor Belgian was the first discoverer.

For a thousand miles above Stanley Pool, the Congo is a navigable stream, here narrow and deep, there ruffled by rapids on one or other side, again its high banks lost to sight on reaches of inland seas; broken by countless green islands, multiplied in the floods, or by solitary trees rooted on a submerged rock; and its affluents, as large as Europe's great rivers, offer thousands of miles of waterway, between banks often thickly populated, sometimes by fierce cannibals who think a row of human skulls the noblest ornament for their homes. On the left bank the most important affluent is the Kwa, formed by the union of the Kwango and the Kassai, the latter flowing from far south in Portuguese territory, where in the rainy season its head-waters are believed to mingle with those of the Zambesi, while its chief tributary, the Sankuru, rises in the same region as the Congo itself. These side-streams, a mile or more broad for hundreds of miles, collect other great veins of an almost unknown country, and one of them brings in the overflow of a lake christened Leopold II, lying not far from the Congo's course. At its northern end this sheet probably

drains also into Lake Mantumba, that has a direct channel into the Congo. Opposite the Mantumba confluence, near the Equator, from the north comes in the Ubangi river, which here and by its bend eastward now makes the frontier between the Congo Free State and French Congo; and its highest waters, the Welle or Kibbi, flow from the southern side of the White Nile's watershed in the country of the Niam-Niam, a fine brown people, who have, indeed, the demerit of being cannibals. By other tributaries on the right side of the Congo and of the Ubangi the French have waterways northward that bring them within reach of the Shari and lesser streams flowing to Lake Chad. Little has as yet been heard of this enormous territory, over which France is firmly seating herself in the heart of Africa; but here she cherishes views great in proportion to its extent, among them a prospect of some day falling heir to the left bank of the Congo.

The Aruwimi is another right-hand tributary, whose upper water, the Ituri, comes from the mountain borders of the Albertine Nile. It flows through the largest mass of the tropical forests that once clad this zone of Central Africa, and is still thickest in the Congo region. Stanley, who first threaded this great forest, reckoned it large enough to cover both France and Spain. Later travellers have shown it to be not without openings; but by the river banks for hundreds of miles, and far to each side, the country is rankly overgrown by trees of countless kinds, from twenty to nearly two hundred feet high, lashed together by cable-like creepers, and wreathed with gray moss, all knotted into a roof of foliage that shuts out sun and sky from the moist ground below, where in deep twilight, with the wet dripping on them even when it does not rain, men must toil on among a tangled underwood of bushes, thorns, ferns, and weeds climbing about dead trunks and twisted roots. This gloomy land is inhabited by shy dwarfs, the tallest of them 4½ feet high, who had reason to be shy of their cannibal neighbours and of the bands of Arab ivory-hunters settled on the outskirts of the forest. Such pigmy tribes are found surviving in different parts of Central Africa; but they seem specially at home in these tangled fastnesses, where they can wriggle and climb like monkeys, and, themselves unseen, will keep a stranger in view for days, who, so unfavourable has been their usual impression of strangers, must always be on his guard against their poisoned arrows, among the other perils and vexations of a most difficult journey.[1]

[1] Sir H. M. Stanley's expedition through "Darkest Africa" made the pigmy forest famous. He was five months passing through that gigantic jungle, and in all the time never saw "a bit of greensward of the size of a cottage chamber floor". The only clear openings were where the forest was cleft by streams, more than thirty of which the party crossed in one day. Often the men had to hew their way with bill-hooks and cutlasses, which from time to time they must stop to sharpen on stones; and every hundred yards or so some obstacle brought them to a stand. Now they were slipping and stumbling over fallen logs, now splashing through a green scum of rottenness. Sometimes in single file they followed narrow tracks made by the dwarfs, paths scoured into gutters by the rain. Sometimes these roads widened as they led from one camp to another of the invisible natives, who had left proofs of their hostility by sticking sharp skewers into the ground, artfully strewn over with leaves. Stanley's men had to keep a sharp look-out against being lamed by these, as well as by the thorns and stiff stalks with which nature had everywhere fortified the wilderness of woods. "At every pace", says the leader, "my head, neck, arms, or clothes were caught by a tough creeper, coarse brier, or a giant thistle-like plant's scratching and rending." Innumerable insects assailed them, especially stinging black ants that dropped down upon their bodies from the trees. There were tormenting bees, too, no bigger than gnats, and beetles that blistered the skin like nettles, and swarms of black wasps that set the naked Africans to flight when disturbed in their hanging nests, which looked as if made of brown paper. But these annoyances were trifling compared with the starvation that wore them to skeletons. They seldom got within shot of game, and only here and there were able to help themselves from plantations of bananas or other crops found about deserted native villages. The small stock of provisions they could carry with them soon dwindled away; they then had to stay their hunger on such mushrooms, berries, and nuts as they could pick up, till the famished men wandered far off into the forest in their desperate search for food, to be caught and perhaps eaten by the cruel savages lurking about their march. Next to hunger, what weighed most on their spirits was not to see the cheerful daylight. Buried beneath that gloomy shade, all they knew of the sky

It would be a loading of the reader's memory to enumerate the often doubtful names of the streams that swell the Congo on the long curve it now describes above the Equator. For hundreds of miles on either side the country is mainly a plain, or gradual slope broken by hills and by ravines that are depths of greenery, the soil covered now with grass, now with bush, and now with forest, in which one may come upon gardens of hot-house fruits and flowers, gay with butterflies like flying flowers, nooks of easy culture that, as the Belgian Senator Picard says, might be taken for an Eden, till its Adams and Eves come forth ugly and sordid, snub-nosed and thick-lipped, with fierce or furtive looks, their brown skins disgustingly scabbed and tattooed. Many well-populated villages are passed, environed by fields and banana groves, with market-places at which half-naked dealers meet to exchange their produce, always with an eye to possible enemies, but more confidently now that the white men impose order on local feuds and raids. Military posts and trading stations have been established at intervals, the most promising of them perhaps New Antwerp, which on some maps will still be marked as Bangala. Another at which great things are expected from the acclimatizing experiments started here, is Stanley Falls, on the chain of upper cataracts rightly named from the dauntless explorer who first faced their daily perils of drowning and starvation, while running the gauntlet of hostile tribes. Hostile they may well be, since their nearest notion of a white man was the Arab slave-catchers till lately established at this point, that now lies within the limits of the Postal Union, and is reached by regular steamers on the Middle Congo from Stanley Pool.

Akka (Pigmy) Girl

Photo. R. Buchta

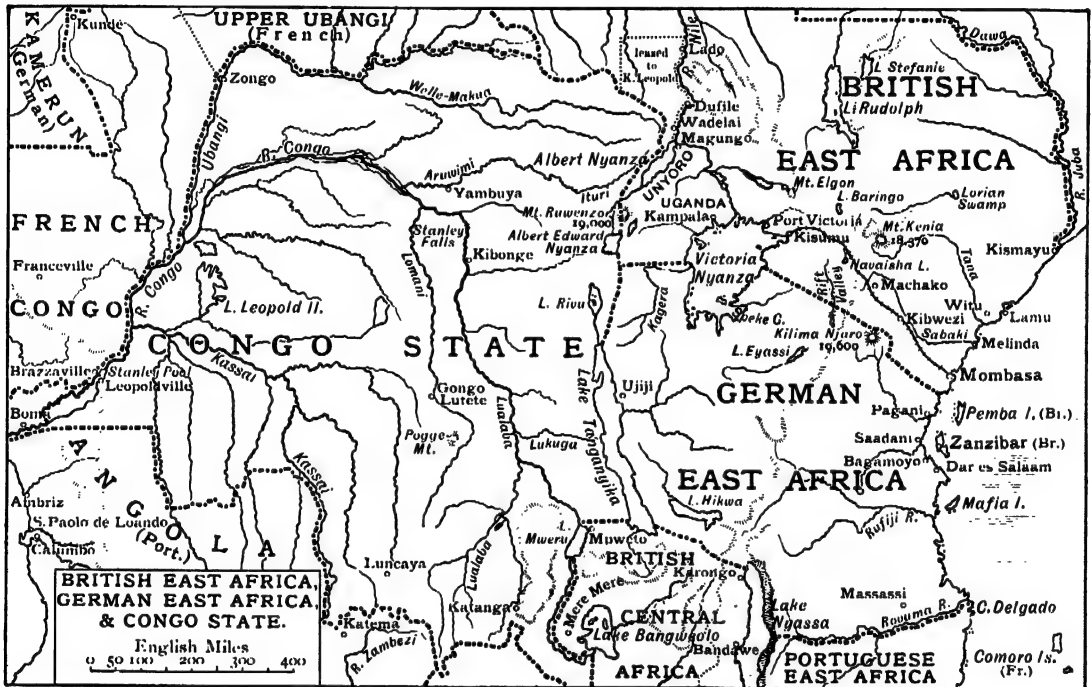
was that days together, towards evening, a terrific thunderstorm would break out; splintering flashes of lightning darted among the trees, and torrents of rain plashed and pattered down through the dense foliage with a noise like a waterfall, while the branches above, bending and crashing in the wind, made a din as of breakers upon a stormy coast. A joyful hour it was when at length, getting clear of the dismal shade, they "emerged upon a rolling plain, green as an English lawn, into the broadest, sweetest daylight". The weary band broke into a run, so glad were they again to see the blue heaven, and the bright sun, and the grass shimmering in a wholesome breeze, and a hundred miles of land lying open to their view, after so many weary weeks groping through that fearsome forest.

Here, near its upper crossing of the Equator, the stream is again barred by seven cataracts, the lowest of them "a stupendous river flung in full volume over a waterfall only 500 yards across". Above this it has a course from the south, formed by two great channels uniting about 7° s., near the point where Stanley struck the stream known as the Lualaba, which he would fain have rechristened the Livingstone; but this name seems not to have stuck. Beyond, it still makes a question among geographers which stream shall be considered the main one. The Lualaba, rising in the far south of the Congo State, claims the honour by its straighter course northward, the general direction of the Upper

Stanley Falls, Congo River. (From a photograph.)

Congo. Its eastern confluent the Luapula, however, brings the greater volume of water, while the imposing effect of its length is contracted by its curving flow from the plateau between the Nyasa and Tanganyika lakes, where it sets out south-westward upon British territory under the name of the Chambezi, to turn abruptly northward after passing through another great lake or swamp at about the same latitude as the Lualaba's source, then to enter Lake Mweru before taking its final north-westward bend: in this devious and lake-expanded course it is quite in keeping with the Congo's general conduct. Between these two branches there is a converging net-work of little-known streams; the more confusing as their names usually begin with the native *Lu*; and it is possible that one of these may some day show cause to be taken for the head-waters of that mighty river, beside which our Thames and Isis are but as highland burns.

# THE ZANZIBAR COAST—BRITISH AND GERMAN EAST AFRICA

These great equatorial lakes that are the reservoirs of the Nile and the Congo mark the parting of other currents for commerce and civilization which on the narrower, loftier, and clearer eastern side of Central Africa, flow to and from Zanzibar. The dawn of history shows Arab traders already active all along this side. About two centuries ago, after ousting a Portuguese conquest, an Arab power fixed itself on a central part of the coast, whence its religion has penetrated among the native paganism along with the Swahili speech of tribes in

which Arab blood has mingled with that of the Bantu race, this mongrel language here serving as a far-spread *lingua franca*, like Hausa in the Central Soudan.

The island of Zanzibar, 30 miles from the mainland, was seat of a dependency of the once-powerful Arabian Imam of Muskat, whose rule extended along the opposite shore of the African mainland, and had a wide sphere of influence through the traders hence pushing far into the interior. Forty years ago, Britain interfered in family quarrels of the Muskat princes, which were settled by making Zanzibar independent, then by one step after another it came to its present condition of a British protectorate. The great hindrance to this arrangement was the slave-trade, that from far inland brought no small gain to Zanzibar, till by persuasion, backed by force, the Sultan was brought to renounce this tribute of blood and tears. Like Sierra Leone, on the opposite coast, his city became a refuge for the slaves freed by our cruisers, and a centre of efforts to put down the slave-raiding that spread ruin as well as misery on both sides of the continent. An Anglican Church now stands on

the old slave-market, as monument of this humane victory. More honest trade supports Zanzibar, still the greatest port of Eastern Africa, on the inner side of a green coral island, cooled by sea-breezes and shaded by groves of palms and mangoes, with cloves for its special production. The population, some 150,000, is a strangely-mixed one of negroes originally stolen from many regions, with adventurers from all ports of the Indian Ocean, among them not a few British subjects from India. The Arab aristocrats have struggled in vain against the extinction of slavery gradually being accomplished; and our Consul-General keeps a watchful eye on the native prince, who, *nolens volens*, has to serve as a minister of Christian civilization, with no prospect of independence in a change to German mastership. The Sultan's capital makes the seat of the High Court for our West African colonies. His nominal rule now extends only to Zanzibar and the adjacent Pemba island. His territories on the main coast, with their hinderland, have been amicably divided between Britain and Germany.

From the Umba river, about 5° south of the Equator, the British East African Protectorate's dominion, including what was for a time the German settlement of Witu, reaches along the coast 450 miles northwards to the Italian sphere beyond the mouth of the Juba, then along the right bank of this river, and inland to the Nile lakes, where it joins the British Uganda Protectorate, the whole an expanse of half a million square miles, over which a few hundreds of Europeans impose order and progress among millions of chiefly Bantu natives. These two adjacent protectorates are probably destined to form one united colony, their separate titles being at present mainly a matter of administration. The eastern province of Uganda, indeed, has recently been handed over to the East African Protectorate.

Southward, a rather longer coast-line brings the German share to the Portuguese boundary at Cape Delgado; and inland Germany's dominion also extends to the great lakes. As in our own case, German trading companies here began the exploitation for which missionaries of religion and science were the pioneers. The whole sphere was then consolidated as an imperial colony, which has had its troubles with the natives, but its officials are now practically masters of a compact block of nearly 400,000 square miles, believed to contain some 6,000,000 of people. As yet, however, on the map-spaces coloured by these rival powers, European institutions have had so little time to grow that we had best fix our attention on the natural rather than the political features of this region, after a glance at the ports, where the new influence is better rooted.

The Germans seem to have got the worst of the bargain by which two civilized nations went halves in this great stretch of territory that belonged to neither of them. Their chief port is Dar-es-Salaam ("home of peace"), a place growing on to 20,000 people, with smart new streets named from the Emperor, Bismarck, and other German heroes such as Herr von Wissmann, to whose governorship the colony owes so much. To the north of this is Bagamoyo, the roadstead opposite Zanzibar, where so many famous explorers have set foot on the mainland. Farther south, the German island Mafia lies off the wide delta of the Rufiji river, the largest of the colony, which is navigable into the interior. At the mouths of other rivers stand ports which may some day become well known through a developing export of ivory, gum, wax, india-

rubber, &c., and of the coffee, tobacco, rice, sesame, and other crops fostered by the young state, along with the growth of useful native timber, and of importations like American aloe fibre. The interior appears to be rich in soda deposits. Round those reviving Arab towns, the once waste land is being covered with plantations, while security for life and property is spreading inland, as the natives become reconciled to European rule, and the German officials learn to glove in velvet their somewhat iron-handed methods of dealing with a subject race, among whom brutal non-commissioned officers have too freely been allowed to play the pacha. Several German missionary enterprises, both

Photo. W. D. Young

Vasco da Gama Street, Mombasa

Catholic and Protestant, are at work here. But the rich flats of the coast-land are unhealthy; then, on rising by steep escarpments to the inland plateaus, across which African pioneers have made so many a weary journey, these are found to a great extent arid steppe and bush, sterilized by an irregular rainfall that here and there gathers in pestiferous swamps. In the centre comes a not very prominent backbone of mountains, beyond which its streams flow to the Congo or the Nile reservoirs. To this side we shall return in passing by those great lakes. On the whole, the German colony cannot be called a very prosperous one, for the national pride in this acquisition is not enough backed by German capital; and much of the trade, as in the neighbouring British ports, is in the hands of those Indian *banyas* who have been styled the Jews of East Africa. On the other hand, German traders are found intruding over British boundaries, for, with all his melodious love of the fatherland, the emigrating Teuton seems often to prefer doing business under a foreign flag. Two railways are advancing

into the interior, one begun from Dar-es-Salaam, an older one stretching from Tanga, the northern port, behind which it is hoped to reach new channels of trade.

Within the German north boundary the mountains rise to a height of nearly 20,000 feet in the two-headed volcanic Kilimanjaro, which, discovered by a German missionary half a century ago, seems to be the loftiest summit of Africa. The whole mass, consisting of the original crater Kimawenzi and the later-formed loftier peak Kibo, swells up out of grand forests, and on the south side has a slope of rich tropical vegetation, while its north flank is precipitous, barren, and waterless. Half-way up, the air becomes piercingly cold, the higher peak being crowned with snow which the astonished natives take for molten silver, and they believe such treasures to be guarded by a spirit whose voice is the thunder. South-west of this, the volcanic cone of Meru stands up "a Cyclopæan pyramid", 9000 feet above the plain. To the north, in British East Africa, close to the Equator, the summit of Mount Kenia is only a few hundred feet lower than Kilimanjaro; and the Aberdare range seems to run northwards for 60 miles or so at a height of 14,000 feet. In these great highlands, on the British side, are found plateaux, several thousands of feet above the sea, having good pastures and bracing air, so as to be fit for European settlement; while to the south are comparatively low plains of barren soil and scanty rainfall, inhabited only at favoured spots about the streams coming from the mountains. This is a too frequent African aspect; but to the north, Joseph Thomson tells us, there is little to suggest the popular idea of the tropics. "The eye rests on coniferous trees, forming pine-like woods, and you can gather sprigs of heath, sweet-scented clover, anemones, and other familiar forms. In vain you look for the graceful palm, ever present in the mental picture of the untravelled traveller. The country is a very net-work of babbling brooks and streams." On one of these, the noble Thomson Falls commemorate the name of one of the truest heroes of African discovery, whose career was cut short by a premature death.

The inhabitants, too, of the northern uplands are a more promising stock than the backward and disunited Bantus farther south, who usually stand in dread of white men, unless when a robber army of them can be collected under some bold chief like that Mirambo, bugbear of travellers in the Livingstone and Stanley time, whose son, under missionary teaching, is reported to be very unlike the father that left him a necklace of human teeth for one badge of authority. About Kilimanjaro and to the north is the country of the Masai, brave and sturdy highland clans, who seem to come from Gallaland, and have till now been the terror of the feebler tribes around. The tall Masai, daubed with paint and grease, are nomad cattle-owners and cattle-"lifters", like some other highlanders we know of, fierce, arrogant, and cruel, indeed, but with qualities which begin to make us better friends with them, the more we see of each other. In any case their power is broken; and now that they are no longer allowed to harry their neighbours, they seem disposed to settle down quietly, only twenty years after Joseph Thomson showed no small courage in venturing through their almost unknown country. Their neighbours to the east, the Wakamba, are pronounced by M. Decle one of the best people he came across in his varied experience of African life.

From Mount Kenia flows the Tana, the chief river of British East Africa, which makes a highway into the interior for small vessels. So do the lower

course and wooded valley of the Sabakhi farther south, and the Juba to the north, whose left bank belongs to Italian Somaliland. The high mountain country falls gradually to the coast-land, which itself is in part not so unhealthy as on most shores of Africa. The chief British East African town, Mombasa, with nearly 30,000 people, including freed slaves settled in the quarter called Frere Town, stands on an island joined to the shore by a causeway, where starts the railway from this excellent harbour. The whole population is estimated at some two millions, including about 2000 Europeans and 25,000 Asiatics. The head-quarters of administration is now Nairobi, a high inland station on the line that makes such a difference in the African travel described by famous explorers, who picture for us this region as it was in pioneering days, as it still is, indeed,

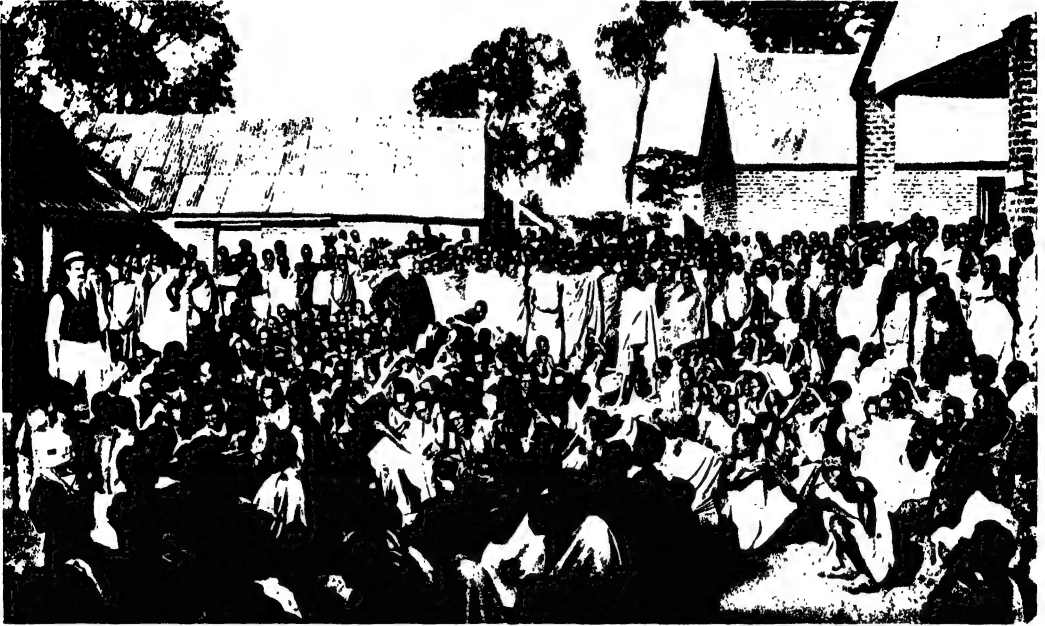
Photo. W. S. Routledge

Masai Warriors

when one gets far off the tracks beaten through a jungle of native barbarism by British and German enterprise. Nairobi has already 14,000 people.

"Arm-chair geographers" can ill understand the old difficulty of travelling through Africa, provided with everything one is likely to need for months, during which he cannot count on meeting a friend, but must be prepared to defend himself not only against wild beasts but against his fellow men, who at the best will welcome a stranger chiefly for what they can get out of him. The arrangements for a successful expedition are a matter of dearly-bought experience, and of time and patience, since nobody in Africa cares to do anything in a hurry. Tents, food, cooking utensils, tools, arms, and ammunition are the first necessaries, which the traveller carries along with him in proportion to his means and the probable length of his wanderings. Then he must have money, and of a kind which will not go in one's pocket. Silver coins pass on the coast, where people are used to dealing with strangers; and in some parts cowries are used, as in others, roughly-shaped lumps of iron or

copper; but goods are the usual currency, especially wire, cloth, and beads, which Stanley calls the gold, silver, and copper of Africa. In the selection of the bulky wares with which he is to pay his way, great care will be taken, but all care may prove wasted even on the part of a practised explorer. For among African tribes, as among ourselves, there are changes and differences of fashion. One tribe must have its cloth of a particular shape or colour; another will take beads only when strung in a certain length; this one likes to decorate itself with bracelets and necklaces of brass wire, and that one prefers iron; here red beads please, and there black, blue, or green ones; then the natives may be found to have grown tired of some kind of ornament which once passed among them as most admirable, but has now no more value than French *sous* would have across the Rhine.

These goods must be tightly packed together in waterproof bales; and the next question is that of transport. Few of the rivers offer roads much beyond their mouths. Horses and oxen are too likely to die on the passage through tracts infested by the poisonous tsetse-fly. The hardy donkey proves more useful, but he, too, often breaks down after giving much trouble by his obstinate ways. The baggage is commonly carried on men's backs, and for this a company of black porters is enlisted, one for each bale, some half-hundredweight making a fair load, but many sturdy natives will bear much more. The best of them are trusted with guns, and dressed out in imposing finery to look like soldiers, who will keep guard over the rest. An important point is the choice of the headman, on whose knowledge of a dozen different tribes and their dialects the traveller must depend, not to speak of honesty and faithfulness, which are not always to be depended on. The whole party may consist of some hundreds of men, no small proportion of them idle fellows who join to get three months pay in advance, with the intention of deserting on the first chance. Sometimes a porter brings his wife along, and sometimes his slave to spare himself trouble. All being at last ready, after weeks or months of preparation, porters, guides, interpreters, guards, and all are passed in review, and the loads distributed, then with a great shouting and firing of guns they plunge into the forests of the continent. The white leader may think himself lucky if at the outset he be not laid up by fever in these malarious lowlands. As they rise to the heights behind, it is the blacks who begin to suffer from the cold that makes them helpless and sluggish, as the heat does for us. Some soon repent of their undertaking, and try to run away while they still know the road back. Lazy after long idleness, they will perhaps throw down their loads, pretending to be too exhausted for another step, and trying all sorts of tricks till they see what sort of master they have to deal with. They behave like careless and thoughtless children, drinking up at once the water for a long journey, tearing their scanty clothing to sell piece-meal for food, and wasting powder for the mere pleasure of hearing a gun go off. They must be looked after and driven along, like animals, always ready to mutiny and quarrel, and often are brought to obedience only by a good thrashing, in moderation resented no more than by the old-fashioned British school-boy. They, too, may have something to complain of, for the white man, weakened by the climate, irritated by continual delays and vexations, is very apt to lose his temper with them and to use the stick too freely. But when they reach a halting-place, these child-like Africans soon forget their fatigue, and perhaps spend half the night in dancing and drumming round the camp fires.

Native Carriers awaiting Engagement at Mandala, the head-quarters of the African Lakes Co.

The camp will be enclosed by a hedge of prickly thorns or bushes, not only as a protection against wild beasts, but at first to keep the men from deserting. They are not so likely to desert when they hear around them the hideous laugh of the hyena, the snort of disturbed buffaloes, and perhaps the distant roar of a lion in the darkness. And before long, there appears good reason for keeping together in a body, when they have to stand on their guard against the tribes of the interior who may be found hovering around to cut off stragglers. The partially civilized chiefs are the easiest to deal with, for they can understand it to be for their own interest not to scare away visitors from whom profit is made, and will only ask what seems a fair tax. The wilder tribes are more ready to rob a stranger of everything, if they dare. One after another bars his way, demanding presents or tribute for the right to pass through their country. Everywhere there is apt to be a great difference of opinion as to what counts as fair and generous. The greedy native king thinks he ought to get a hundred pieces of cloth; the traveller offers ten; and it is only after hours of wrangling that the two parties come to terms. Besides this customary tribute, the strangers may have to buy food at whatever price is demanded, for each porter, as he goes along, will be eating up his load. If the people are weak, the hungry porters turn robbers, using the prestige of their white leader as an excuse for helping themselves, and raising up enemies behind and before him, for reports fly far faster than he can advance. Sometimes, he must turn aside out of his straight road to avoid tracts of war or famine. Always he has a hard task in keeping his naked regiment together, in good health, good temper, and good conduct. Of one expedition numbering five hundred men, we read that only one-twentieth part reached the shores of Lake Victoria, the rest having died or deserted on the way.

Ten miles a day is a fair rate of progress, when all goes well. Deeper and deeper into Africa the caravan makes its slow way, now wading and

swimming streams or throwing over them the simple bridge of a tree cut down, now floundering in muddy swamps, now limping over hard-baked deserts, now hewing through thorny jungles, or pushing among grass stiff enough to cut bare legs and long enough to switch men's faces, now crawling up rough mountain slopes, where in rainy weather the tracks are turned into torrents. Sometimes it seems lost in a deep forest; then it may cross an open plain where beaten ways lead between tall fields of grain from village to village; then again the villages will be found burned and the crops running wild, to show how the country has lately been devastated by war. A well-equipped explorer, who knows what line to take, and finds plenty of game, is perhaps best pleased when he can keep clear of native dwellings. Whenever he approaches a tribe, the question is how they will receive him; and he knows that, at the best, they will look to make gain by his loss. He soon has unwelcome visitors from the tribe in whose territory he halts for a night. Now he must open his bales of beads and cloth, and try to satisfy these new acquaintances as well as possible. But they are not easily satisfied; they crowd into his tents, playing the beggar if not the thief, staring at and pawing him with their greasy fingers, demanding that he shall strip to show them his queer white skin, asking endless questions which he cannot understand, threatening him when they durst and giving him ceaseless trouble to keep them satisfied.

Among his wares should be a stock of medicines, which have a great effect on the minds as well as the bodies of these people. Such apparatus as an electric battery or a photographic camera, even a burning-glass or a match-box, may help the white man on by giving him a reputation as a great sorcerer. Mr. Joseph Thomson passed for a person not to be lightly meddled with, by making effervescent powders fizz in a tumbler, and by a sly trick of taking out and putting in again two false front-teeth he wore. He tells us also how he cured laziness among his own men by giving them a strong dose of castor-oil. A watch, a compass, a revolver, or a breech-loading rifle are sure to pass for great wonders. A man wearing spectacles is stared at as if he were a monster. One explorer tried to smooth his way by travelling with a stock of fireworks and a hurdy-gurdy organ! Often the very sight of a white man is enough to overawe the simple natives; while also he may be dogged for days by a mob of armed beggars, hesitating between insolence and cowardice in their hostile designs. Sometimes, indeed, this wonderful stranger excites such admiration that his hosts will hardly let him go. Again, at his approach, the scared natives may take to the woods in terror, venturing no nearer than to shoot poisoned arrows from some impenetrable ambush. Generally, they leave him in peace after having got all that is to be begged or stolen from him; but at any point a quarrel may arise to force him to fight his passage. Then much must depend on his own good sense and good temper, for often the excitable Africans will shriek, spring about and brandish their clubs and spears in a most alarming manner, when a friendly word or a firm look proves enough to quiet them; while often, with the most peaceful intentions, Europeans may give deadly offence to the natives by ignorance of their customs. At every stage, the bold explorer risks his life, from weapons or wild beasts, and still more from the feverous swamps that poison his blood. When he has paid away all his stores, he is in a bad case, still more if he run short of food, or of ammunition, since game is usually to be had for the shooting. Thus it comes that some

African travellers have never been seen again, dying of want, hardships, and sickness, or massacred by the ignorant savages who take every stranger for an enemy.

What went most to the heart of a traveller of Livingstone's stamp was when he crossed an Arab caravan coming down to the coast with a freight of ivory loaded on the shoulders of living merchandise, negroes captured hundreds of miles away to be driven down like cattle, linked by chains or with forked sticks on their necks. The cruel treatment of these unfortunates showed how abundant and how easily come by was such "black ivory". Where food was dear they might have nothing to eat but what roots or herbs they could

On the Railway from Mombasa to the Victoria Nyanza· Entering the Nandi Country Photo. W D Young

grub up for themselves; and many of them died on the way, of hunger and exhaustion, many, too, of broken hearts or home-sickness. Others, if well fed, might take their fate more cheerfully, never having known at home what it was not to be ill-treated and oppressed.[1] All the losses and perils of this trade were balanced by its enormous profits, since in the far interior a tusk of ivory, worth over a hundred pounds in Europe, might be picked up for a pennyworth of beads, then transported on the backs of slaves cheaply bought,

[1] Mr. Joseph Thomson tells us how his blood boiled when first he met a slave caravan in Africa, and what a look of withering indignation he gave the cruel slave-driver. "The women, though chained with iron by the neck, were many of them carrying their children on their backs, besides heavy loads on their heads. Their dull, despairing gaze expressed the loss of all hope of either life or liberty, and they looked like a band marching to the grave. Saddest sight of all was that of a string of little children, torn from home and playmate, wearily following the gang with bleeding, blistered feet, reduced to perfect skeletons by starvation, looking up with a piteous eye, as if they besought us to kill them. It was out of my power to attempt releasing them. The most I could do was to stop them, and give the little things the supply of beans and ground-nuts I usually carried in my pockets."

or taken at the cost of a little gunpowder. The use of slave labour made for these Arab traders a great advantage over those who must engage sulky and lazy porters. But to give the Arabs their due, they often carried on their black business with an intrepidity that extorted the admiration of the brave missionary, A. M. Mackay, little love as he had for the like of them; and while the mongrel Moslems, called by this name, shade off into the native barbarity, the pure Arab, cruel at heart as he might be, is distinguished by a courtesy and civilized manners rarely met by strangers in the Dark Continent.

European domination, while barring the way to the slave-trade, has smoothed down some of those difficulties of travel; and they are altogether circumvented so far by the opening of the railway from Mombasa to the Victoria Nyanza. This line, nearly 600 miles long, had its own difficulties to overcome. It was made by an imported army of Indian coolies, through barbarous tribes, where at one time the works were checked by a native rising, and over a country that presents costly obstacles to railway construction: even water tanks had to be provided, as well as drinking-water for the labourers and coal for the engines. With a telegraph line by its side, passing between the Kilimanjaro and the Kenia mountains, crossing innumerable streams by steel viaducts, cutting through deadly swamps and dense jungles, the rail gradually mounts to about twice the height of Ben Nevis, then makes a shorter descent to its terminus, Port Florence, on an inlet of the Kavirondo Gulf at the great lake's north-eastern corner.

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## UGANDA AND THE NILE RESERVOIRS

Beyond the giant mountains of East Africa lies the Great Rift Valley, a long hollow containing several salt and fresh lakes, which runs from below the German north frontier up to Lake Rudolf, on the edge of Gallaland. Upon the western edge of this rift rises another mountain mass, of which the highest point appears to be the cave-pitted Mt. Elgon (over 14,000 feet). These mountains, whose streams flow north to Lake Rudolf, and south to the Victoria Nyanza, are broken by other deep hollows and by the lofty plateaux which offer such good promise to European colonization. It has been already mentioned how this province, originally making part of the Uganda Protectorate, has been transferred to that of East Africa; and Sir H. H. Johnston, who hopes to see a prosperous population of settlers where at present one may travel for days without meeting a human being, is clear that, sooner or later, the two administrations must be united, with a capital on the Nandi Plateau, of whose beautiful scenery and healthy climate he speaks so enthusiastically.[1] By the railway, this African

[1] "The scenery in the Nandi Plateau, between 7000 and 10,000 feet in altitude, reminds the home-sick official and traveller over and over again of England, of Wales, of Scotland. Here are the swelling green downs crested with beautiful woodland, reminding one of Sussex or Surrey. Here is a roaring Scotch burn in full spate, the colour of foaming beer, tearing down over gray boulders through a forest of gaunt junipers, which at a little distance might well be pines or firs growing on Scotch mountains. Here you may see the Brecknock Beacons, scenery more mountainous than the Sussex downs, yet with the rich woods of Surrey and the rocks of Wales. . . . This beautiful land has not in it a single ugly or unfriendly spot. Everywhere the landscape is gracious and pleasing in a quiet, homely way, offering few violent forms or startling effects. It is thus singularly homelike, and as it is entirely without native inhabitants, it seems to be awaiting the advent of another race which should make it a wonderland of wealth and comfort, a little England, half a Scotland, or a large Wales, lying exactly under the equator at an average altitude of 4000 feet above the Victoria Nyanza, of whose silvery gulfs and ghostly mountain coast-line glimpses at a distance of twenty-five miles may be caught

Simla is easily reached from the coast. More than one British peer has occupied wide lands hereabouts; but neighbours of small means are said to be discouraged by results, while high-handed treatment of the natives has caused some hot friction between these settlers and the colonial government.

We are now at the backbone of Africa, that long mass of ridges, peaks, widespread plateaux, and far-stretching buttresses that make the vertebræ of its skeleton. In the hollows of this central elevation, the tropical rains fill lakes of fresh water, which seem to go on shrinking from their former dimensions, but still form enormous reservoirs in the heart of the thirsty continent. Only in North America is found another such group of great lakes. Though they make but little blue patches on the map, some of them are veritable inland seas, swarming with crocodiles and hippopotamuses, dotted with islands, and often lashed by perilous storms. The principal ones have been baptized by English names as first discovered by Englishmen, while the general title *Nyanza* is of course a native word for lake. Long these lakes lay in the region of fable, till half a century ago Burton and Speke came upon Tanganyika "in the lap of the mountains, basking in the gorgeous tropical sunshine". Burton, blinded and disabled by malaria, had to turn back; but Speke went northwards to grope out the long-sought source of the Nile in the Victoria Nyanza. Two years later, returning with Captain Grant, he was able to verify his surmise by tracing the Nile downwards, then came home to write a book which this man of action found a harder task than all his weary African travel, and to die by a trivial accident in his native country after passing safely through so many perils. It was Stanley who learned the extent of the great lake by circumnavigating it with British pluck and American grit; but though it is now ploughed up by steamers, we hardly yet know all that lurks in its deep bays and fringe of countless islands. The Victoria Nyanza, nearly 4000 feet above the sea, is the largest lake in the world, except Lake Superior, its shores being some 800 miles in circuit, and its area about equal to that of Scotland. In former times it has been still more extensive. The Equator runs through it near the north end, which is British, the southern half being in German bounds.

Round about the Victoria Nyanza are the homes of many tribes, with whose names we will not much trouble the reader, especially as they have a monotonous trick of beginning with U. It is the way with Bantu languages to do by prefixes what we do by suffixes; and Europeans have usually first learned these names through the Swahili cross of Bantu and Arabic, in which, to take the example given by Speke, the root *Gogo* is modified thus: *U*gogo, the country; *M*gogo, a native of it; *Wa*gogo, its people; and *Ki*gogo, its language. The Swahili interpreters were not always accurate, for it appears Unyoro is *Bunyoro* in its own speech, and Uganda, *Buganda*; but the mistaken name of the latter country has already become too familiar to us to be changed. The inferior Bantu stock seems to have

occasionally from some breezy height or through the interstices of woods which themselves might be in Surrey. These views of a vast but distant seascape, which, owing to the height of the horizon, seem to appear in the sky, give that occasional touch of weirdness to the Nandi landscapes which would be the case in England or Scotland if amid familiar landscapes we suddenly saw limned in gray or silver in the lower sky the features of a foreign land. In the direction of the Victoria Nyanza, the plateau sometimes crumbles away into broadening river valleys, through which one descends rapidly to tropical regions."—Sir H. H. Johnston's *Uganda*.

For another attraction to English settlers, the same writer tells us how, in an almost uninhabited country, he passed among the most extraordinary plenty of big game, elephants and rhinoceroses put up like partridges, zebras and antelopes so tame as to come within a few yards of the caravan and follow it for miles, lions so well fed that they did not care to meddle with the men travelling through this open Zoological Garden.

here received an infusion of blood through Galla conquest, by which at one time a great lakeland empire was formed only to go to pieces. When white men appeared in this region, they found flourishing at the north end of the Victoria Nyanza a kingdom, whose sovereign, Mtesa, held feudal sway over lesser Uganda chiefs, and, by means of a considerable army and a navy of war canoes on the lake, had more or less effectively made himself master of the feebler tribes around. His people, blessed by a good climate and productive soil, had attained a state of comparative civilization, though under a government as tyrannous and bloodthirsty as that of Ashanti or Dahomey. As the first clearing of virgin soil

Kavirondo Gulf, on Victoria Nyanza: Port Florence in the distance

Photo. W. D. Young

often stirs up germs of fever, so the letting in of light to this part of the Dark Continent led to a long series of troubles with religion as their leaven.[1]

[1] Stanley seems to have formed too high an opinion of King Mtesa, and to have taken too earnestly his request for Christian teachers. A Protestant mission reached Uganda with the devoted engineer A. M. Mackay as its mainspring. The king lent an ear to Christian teaching, but soon showed himself one of those converts who hanker after "some new thing". He had begun by being converted to Islam; then he dabbled in Protestant teaching, but gave welcome also to French Catholic missionaries who arrived to confuse the minds of hopeful disciples by denying their fellow Christians. Mtesa failed to bring forth fruits meet for any passable repentance; he even showed a disposition to wallow again in pagan superstition; but on the whole, with interludes of offended temper, he protected the rival missionaries from the more active ill-will of minor chiefs. Things went from bad to worse when this king's long reign came to an end. He was succeeded by his son Mwangwa, a fickle, flighty, and cruel youth who played the part of a black Nero. Probably with the young king's connivance, Bishop Hannington was murdered on the way to his thorny diocese. A cruel persecution was waged against the Christian converts, many perishing by fire and other torments, while the missionaries themselves seem to have owed their lives to a vague fear of revenge to be taken by the European powers whom King Mwangwa tried hard to think of as inferior to his own state, but had disquieting proof to the contrary in the German humbling of Zanzibar. Even Mackay at last withdrew to the south shore of the lake. In the obscure internal troubles that followed, Mwangwa's oppression became so unbearable that both Christian and Moslem subjects united to drive him into exile. Religious liberty was proclaimed under a new king; but the rival believers soon quarrelled. The

For twenty years Uganda was distracted by persecutions and revolts, interwoven with the rivalry of Catholic and Protestant missionaries. Peace has at last been restored by British intervention, the Catholic and the Protestant converts occupying different districts, while another is set apart for a Moslem remnant; but most of Uganda proper is now nominally Christian. Britain has taken over the government, with the boy king for figure-head of an administration by our commissioner through the native officials. Taxes are paid partly in kind, a recent year's revenue including 5 elephants, 1 zebra, and 20 chimpanzees. The cumbrous currency of cowries is being supplanted by Indian rupees. Order is maintained by an army of 4000 disciplined soldiers, partly from India, behind which we can draw upon a considerable body of native forces, who seem reconciled to our domination. A serious drawback to its success is the spread of the "sleeping sickness", that mysterious disease that, appearing not long ago in this region, has already killed hundreds of thousands by attacks nearly always fatal, their source now apparently traced to a poisonous fly.

The chief town, Mengo, near an inlet of the lake, reminds us of the Abyssinian capital in its great extent, being really a more closely-packed area of the country, where nearly 80,000 people live in roomy houses, built and thatched with reed-like grass, around which are fenced in the banana gardens that supply their staple food. Like Rome, it spreads over several hills, on one of which the royal "palace" is enclosed by a fence more than two miles in circuit. A steamer from Port Florence runs to the inlet below Entebbe, which is the official quarter, while the native town is known rather as Kampala. The fort of the British government stands on another height. On a third hill are the head-quarters of the Roman Catholics, and on a fourth those of the Protestant missionaries, the latter crowned by an imposing church, "which from the outside has the appearance of a large barn, and inside that of a pine forest, there being about three hundred poles supporting the roof". In 1910 this cathedral, holding between three and four thousand people, was unfortunately destroyed by fire, but will no doubt be rebuilt. Both Catholics and Protestants have taught a considerable proportion of the people to read as well as to attend religious services; and instead of their pagan or Moslem amulets, many natives may be seen displaying medals, crucifixes, and bags round their necks containing *gris-gris* copied from our Scriptures, and no more from the Koran. How far these outward signs represent inward grace is often questionable; but many of the Uganda converts have certainly proved their faith by painful martyrdom,

Christians, driven out, were presently able to turn the tables. Mwangwa meanwhile had taken refuge with the French missionaries, and professed to be converted. The Christians, rallying round him, drove out the Arabs, and restored the king to his throne, but without his former absolutism, the priests now holding him in leading-strings. These Frenchmen tried to be shoehorns for a French protectorate; Germany also showed a disposition to step into the same shoes; but on the scene of religious and political disputes appeared the British East African Company, whose agent Captain Lugard was able to impose order under the British flag. Still, Uganda seemed such an unpromising possession, that there was some idea of withdrawing from it, but after some hesitation the British government took it over along with the other claims of the Company. After something like a civil war had raged between Catholic and Protestant converts, the Pope interfered to stop religious quarrels by substituting Irish for French missionaries. King Mwangwa still *faisait des siennes*, by fits and starts intriguing against the new government while also making himself hateful to his own people; but once more he was driven from the throne to die, 1903, in exile on the Seychelles Islands. A child prince was set up, and order enforced in his name, yet not till another storm had burst in this much-tried land. We had enlisted a Soudanese force, remnants of Emin Pasha's ragged army in the Equatorial province. The majority of these mutinied, and held out for a year till the arrival of Sikh troops from India enabled our officers to crush the rebellion. All is at present peaceful under the regency of three chiefs, acting for the young king, Daudi Chua. The first Katikiro, or Prime Minister, who came to England for King Edward's coronation, was a Protestant convert named Apolo—from the scriptural Apollos—a native of notable character, who set the example of freeing his slaves. This high official, as well as twelve viceroys of the provinces, made part of the old Uganda constitution, a not untempered despotism.

while others attest their sincerity in less satisfactory fashion by such ill-will to the rival Christians as flourishes between Orangemen and Catholics nearer home. As to the devotion of the missionaries of both creeds under very trying circumstances there can be no doubt.[1]

Banana Plantation, Uganda
(From a photograph by Sir Harry Johnston, G.C.M.G., K.C.B.)

The Uganda country seems to be mainly a succession of switchback ridges having a general height of some 4000 feet, where stand the native houses and plantations, the intervening hollows filled with woods, papyrus swamps, and jungles of the reeds expressively known as elephant-grass and tiger-grass, through which, matted as they are at the roots, and the soft soil pitted by the huge hoofs of elephants and hippos, it is often harder to force one's way than in the thick forest. Roads and causeways, when made, have to be constantly seen to, always apt to be overflowed by the rank vegetation. Many parts of the soil are so rich, and the climate so warm, without being oppressive, that

[1] Enthusiastic recruits for the work carried on under Bishop Tucker should consider the following account of its prosaic features. "He is a teacher, but he must also be a builder, for houses, cattle-pens, stores, and outhouses have to be constructed by the missionary. He must also be a doctor of medicine and a dentist; he must dose the sick natives, who will trust him implicitly to cure them of even leprosy, and he must be able to draw the most solidly-rooted molar that ever grew in the skull of a black man. More than this, he must be his own cobbler, and when his boots wear out he must be able to re-sole them with good understandings, and must be content sometimes with nothing but a few French nails and a piece of cowhide with which to accomplish it. His own socks he must darn, and keep his temper while he does it, or his fingers will come off second best; and it must be done well, too; or else he will go for weeks with a blister on his toe. Better for him, if he cannot darn, to cut the foot off the stocking and put his bare foot into the boot. He must be his own carpenter and house-decorator, as well as furniture-maker; chairs and tables constructed out of old chop-boxes are not the easiest things to make with no other tools than a small hand-saw and a chisel. But he must also be his own lawyer, accountant, and book-keeper; and when the currency takes the form of cowrie shells, as it does in Uganda (where three hundred tiny cowries make a shilling), it is not easy to keep the accounts right. He must marry and divorce, give judgments and baptize. He must be gardener, cook, and dairymaid, grow his own food and look after his live stock. In addition to all this he is the parish minister, to help and comfort all who come to him."—A. B. Lloyd's *In Dwarf Land and Cannibal Country*.

it is hoped to start here the growth of coffee, sugar, cotton, indigo, and tobacco, under European superintendence; but the definite success of these experiments can hardly yet be reported on. The natives grow millet and other grain; but the banana is their chief crop, which serves so many purposes as well as food. The leaves make thatch, plates and other domestic utensils, a single large one doing fairly well for an umbrella. Ropes, twine, bags, &c., are supplied from the fibres; and the bark comes into many uses. From the fruit, the French missionaries have manufactured beer, wine, brandy, vinegar, bread, and jam. The banana gardens are cultivated by the women, one of whom can keep nine men thus by a few hours' work; and as an unconverted native might have half a dozen wives, the family would find little difficulty in making both ends meet. The children look after the cattle, sheep, and goats.

The Uganda people themselves are naturally an intelligent race, held down by the cruelty of their old government, and enervated by the slavery it fostered, as by the easiness of living on bananas. They take kindly to improvements which do not make too much call on their own laziness; and when well led some have shown themselves good soldiers. Their industrial skill is remarkable, especially in iron work; a Uganda blacksmith will make a rifle from pattern, with rude bellows, a fire of charcoal, and a lump of iron for hammer. In wood-carving, pottery, basket and mat weaving, and making of bark cloth they are really artistic. The upper classes affect cotton clothes, hitherto supplied by Arabs, and now freely introduced by our traders, along with European garments that do not make for picturesqueness. Trousers and shirts come into demand even among the statuesque naked people around, of some of whom it is testified on good authority that their unshamed nudity by no means represents a lower state of morals, but rather the contrary in the case of the Kavirondo people between the lake and the Nandi plateau. On the west side, a tribe has been found living naked at the height of 10,000 feet, apparently not at all troubled by the intense cold. Among these wilder dependants, too, Christianity is being introduced. North of Uganda comes the kingdom of Unyoro, whose inhabitants were also of higher culture, but its military power was inferior to that of its neighbour. This seems the northern limit of the Bantu race; beyond, we come among the Nile Soudan tribes, where here and there a lighter tint and less coarse features distinguish the Hamitic strain of the Gallas, who in this corner of Africa have been what the Norman conquerors were to Saxon England.

To sift out the peoples of this region, however, with their confused mixture of woolly-haired Negro, curly-haired Hamite, and straight-haired Semite, is beyond our scope. Let us turn back to string its physical features upon the course of the Nile, which we have already followed upwards through "a wilderness of water, weed, and scrub" to the frontier of this new protectorate. The famous river that flows along two-thirds of the continent, has its farthest sources in German East Africa, whence flow the southern feeders of the Victoria Nyanza; while another arm comes from the Albertine lakes on the boundary between the Uganda Protectorate and the Congo State. At the north end of the great lake, the Victoria or Somerset Nile pours out over a cataract baptized the Ripon Falls. For about a hundred miles it runs north-westward, opening into lakes like Kioja, enclosing island thickets of reeds, and dashing over a series of rapids as it swiftly descends to the lower level of northern Africa.

The last of these cataracts is the Murchison Falls. one of the finest scenes on the continent, where the river leaps down over 100 feet in one mass of snow-white foam, then joins its waters to those of the Albert Nyanza, more than 1000 feet lower than the Victoria Nyanza. It is proposed to use the power of such falls for an electric rail along the unnavigable connection of these lakes.

The Albert Lake, 100 miles long by 25 broad, is only touched at its north end by the Victoria Nile, of which it was once taken for a backwater. But it proved to be the lowest basin in a long central hollow running north and south, by which comes in the mass of waters known as the Albertine Nile.

Photo. W. D. Young

Native Group, Nandi Country

The next link in this chain is the river Semliki that brings down the overflow of the Albert Edward Nyanza, 150 miles to the south. Its valley, described as a hothouse of equatorial vegetation, lies under the great Ruwenzori mountain range discovered by Stanley, but first ascended (1906) by that far explorer the Duke of the Abruzzi, with the help of Alpine guides, who measured the highest point as 16,625 feet. The two sister summits of this snowy ridge he christened Margherita and Alexandra, after the queens of Italy and England. Thus were brought into geographical knowledge those long mysterious "Mountains of the Moon", that had been guessed at as possibly higher than Kilimanjaro. To the west they overlook the dark Congo Forest, with its ape-like men, and its shy *okapi*, a newly-discovered variety of the giraffe. The range seems indeed to lie mainly within the Congo Free State; and it is in question whether a strict tracing of the 30th meridian as border line should not put Lake Albert Edward into this dominion, its frontier hitherto taken to be the western bank.

On the south-east, towards the Victoria Nyanza, there are smaller lakes that seem to be drying up, in the Karagwe country, which Speke found a flourishing kingdom, but it had been ruined by native misgovernment before coming into the hands of German officials. For to the south of Albert Edward Nyanza, the British Uganda protectorate is cut short by a protrusion of the German territory, that hence marches with the Congo State as far as the natural boundary of Lake Tanganyika. The German acquisition was a sore point to "empire makers" who bestowed on Britain a vested right to all the interior of Africa from the Cape to Cairo; but our arrangement with Germany provides for a right of way through its bounds from our Uganda protectorate to the British Central African colony at the south end of the lakes.

The general form of the lakes lying in this long hollow is a broad strip representing the expansion of the streams that run through them. Albert Edward, like the Victoria Nyanza, is exceptional in its more compact shape, with one projection to the north-east called Lake Ruisamba. Standing about 3000 feet above the sea, the main body measures roughly some 40 miles each way, but was once more extensive; even within the last few years it appears to have contracted through a volcanic commotion. For now we come into a highly volcanic region of both active and extinct craters, the most lively of which appears to be the triple-cratered Kirunga, or Mt. Götzen, about 11,000 feet high. To the north-east rise higher and sharper peaks of the Mfumbiro range, one of them, Karisimbi, appearing to be 14,000 feet high; and to the north-west there has quite recently swelled up a new vent thousands of feet high, with a crater several miles round, which Mr. Grogan, who discovered it, named Mt. Sharp after the companion of his adventurous journey. This volcanic embossment, with its geysers, its recent lava flows bursting up among the thick forests that cover ancient ruin, and its rents quickly choked by luxuriant greenery, now makes the watershed between the Nile and Congo, damming up as it does the central hollow and interrupting the connection of its lakes. It has another note of division, in the statement that the fauna here is West African while the flora belongs rather to the east side. Its northern streams flow to the Albert Edward Nyanza; on the east spring what may prove to be the farthest head-waters of the Victoria Nile. To the south lies the beautiful Lake Kivu, with its big island Kwijwi and many smaller ones, where Mr. Grogan was reminded now of Scotland, then of New Zealand, and again of the evergreen South Sea islands, set in "a lacework of bays, lochs, and inlets" among a confusion of surrounding hills, from whose bare tops "black masses of natives in a silvery sea of glinting spearheads" watched the passage of the strangers at a distance, suspicious of theft among their banana plantations that covered the lower heights for miles.[1] A new race of pigmies has been discovered hereabouts.

Kivu's waters are considerably higher than those of the Albert Edward, into

[1] Mr. E. S. Grogan (*From the Cape to Cairo*) thought the view of Lake Kivu from the north the finest he had ever seen. "Far to the south stretched the mighty expanse of water, dark promontories of every shape and size jutted far into the lake, Kwijwi stood out in bold outline; and the mighty wall of mountains on the west was dimly visible on the far horizon. Below me stretched a great plain, the eastern part densely covered with fields of millet and banana plantations, dotted with a thousand huts. In all the fields hundreds of women were working, and small herds of cattle and goats were slowly wending their way to the lake. To the west the plain was covered with young forest. To the north towered the terrific mass of Mount Götzen, vomiting forth a great volume of black smoke. The old volcanoes towered aloft above the clouds, which swirled in constant eddies about their base. Entranced with the view, I waited till the sun declined and dropped like a molten ball behind the bold outline of the hills; then the moon came up, bathing the waters of the lake in silvery light."

which they once fell; but, barred to the north by that upheaval of a volcanic dam, this lake now discharges southwards through the country of the Ruanda people, in whose aristocratic caste there appears some strain of Galla invasion, and they are still warlike enough to have kept off Arab slave-traders, while they bear out their Spartan character in a reputation for bold thievery. By a valley of rich swamps and forests between naked hills, the river Rusisi, opening into a delta of five mouths, carries the overflow of Kivu into Lake Tanganyika.

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## THE SOUTHERN LAKELAND, AND BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA

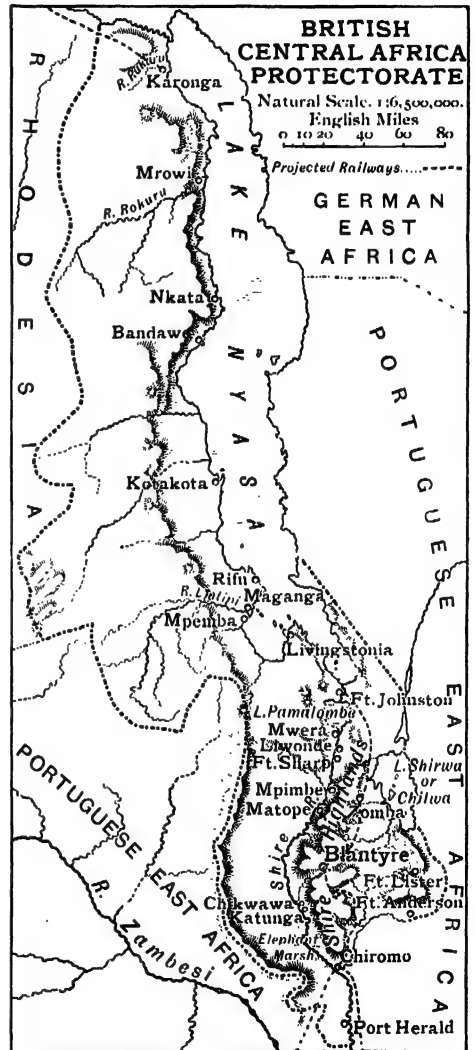
The name Tanganyika, like Nyanza, denotes a large water-sheet: so do many of the streams in Africa, as in England, bear names which to their natives signify simply *the* water. This basin in the great central hollow is more like a broad river than a lake, having a breadth of 20 to 50 miles with a length of 400 miles, a trough of beautifully blue water sunk between lofty mountain banks, the shores showing lovely landscapes of gray and red cliffs and walls of luxuriant greenery. When first discovered in the middle of the nineteenth century, no outlet could be found for this enormous reservoir; but since then it has overflowed by the Lukuga river on the west side, which is one of the affluents of the Congo; and thus its waters reach the distant Atlantic. It was here that Livingstone vainly hoped to find the sources of the Nile, and it seems characteristic of him that he so long made his head-quarters about "the cockpit of African misery, where to this day men's skulls lie as shells by the sea-shore, telling of the inconceivable hell that but a few years back raged round this inland sea".

The east side of the lake is entirely German. Near the north end on this side is Ujiji, renowned for Stanley's encounter with Livingstone after a perilous journey of nine months from the coast over the plateau that now makes German East Africa. Ujiji has long been a lively Arab trading-market, frequented by merchants of oil, grain, salt, ivory, and other wares from far and near, including the slaves for whom Livingstone's heart bled in helpless pity. Now that slave-coffles are supplanted by steamers on the lake, European traders have made their appearance among the dignified Arab plutocracy of the place, and this is the present terminus of the Cape telegraph line, which will one day stretch on to meet the wires brought up the Nile from Cairo. Ujiji appears to be rather the name of a district than a town, but some 20,000 people are said to be gathered at its nucleus, a long wide street planted with mangoes, with more scattered white buildings that mark its harbour on the sloping shore. Another scattered but populous place of trade, with 13,000 inhabitants, is or was Tabora on the German eastern plateau, the point at which the chief caravan route from the coast forks for the Victoria Nyanza and for Tanganyika; but the opening up of new ways has brought this station to decline. To the east near the south end of Tanganyika lies the salt Lake Rukwa (or Hikwa), a closed basin, below which, by the Livingstone Mountains, German territory reaches to Lake Nyassa, its north end 200 miles south-eastward from the Hore Bay corner of Tanganyika.

The west shore of Tanganyika belongs to the Congo State. Its foot is

touched by the north end of that vast territory which, under the name of Rhodesia, is at present controlled by the British South Africa Company. In this domain, to the south-west of Tanganyika, are the Mweru swamp and lake, through which flows the Luapula, after intersecting another great lake or swamp to the south, Bangweolo, where Livingstone died in 1873. Into Bangweolo this curving claimant to be the Congo's source comes down, as the Chambezi, from the plateau between Tanganyika and Nyassa, that forms a triple watershed, whence the latter lake and the river Loangwa drain southwards into the Zambesi, while on the other side of this mass rises the Rufiji, the chief stream of German East Africa. The central ridge of mountains seems to rise higher on the eastern side of the great hollow, the Livingstone range, north-east of Nyassa, being sometimes 10,000 feet.

Nyassa, or Nyasa, a variant of the word Nyanza, is the last of the great lakes, 350 miles long, with a breadth varying from 15 to 50 miles. This other inland sea, bordered by mountains through whose gaps come storms that often lash it into fury, is also divided in ownership. Up till our own time its fertile shores were vaguely claimed as a hinderland of Portugal, which had neither the will nor the power to prevent them being ruined by Arab slavers. Portuguese bounds still reach to the southern half of the eastern shore. The northern half on this side belongs to German East Africa, whose chief station, Langenburg, is near the head of the lake. The river Rovuma, rising about the middle of the eastern heights, makes a boundary between Portugal and Germany to the sea. The other shore and the south end, with the greater part of the country through which Nyasa drains by the Shiré into the Zambesi, forms a new protectorate of over 40,000 square miles, directly administered by our government under the title of Nyasaland, the ex-British Central Africa, marching on the west with the vaguer dominion called Rhodesia.

The title familiarly contracted as B.C.A made an unhappily chosen one in view of the fact that this region is neither central to the length nor the breadth of the continent; perhaps it expressed an aspiration towards farther extent, cut short by the claims of our rivals here. Nyasaland would seem a better name. A fit one would be New Scotland, so much is this a Caledonian colony. It owes its birth to the interest roused by Livingstone's devotion.

Monkey Bay, at the southern end of Lake Nyassa. (From a photograph.)

His forlorn hope was followed by Free Church of Scotland missionaries, who gave the name Livingstonia to their settlement, since abandoned on account of its unhealthiness. The Established Kirk sent a separate mission, whose head-quarters were christened Blantyre, after Livingstone's birth-place. Half a dozen other bodies are now at work here, Catholic and Protestant, French, Dutch, and British, who are not altogether in sympathy with one another's labours, still less with the godless ways of certain white traders and adventurers representing another side of European life, nor always with the authorities who have to see fair play for law-abiding profanity as well as for self-denying piety; but among all classes of settlers, Scotsmen are well to the front, as they have been from the first. The African Lakes Company, that undertook the opening up of this region, was mainly a Glasgow enterprise; and such names as Laws, Moir, Buchanan, Scott, Fenwick, Fotheringham among the pioneers, Mackinnon and Stevenson among the promoters, paved the way for many *Macs* that no longer make Cockney Quintilians "stare and gasp".

Those early settlers had their share of troubles, with the Portuguese, who claimed lordship here, with some of the natives, and above all with the Arab slave-traders, against whom a handful of Britons carried on gallant war. Nor were their troubles at an end when the British Government let itself be drawn into authority; but peace is now established over the protectorate. At first the colony was kept back by a difficulty of access, since goods could reach it only by passing through the Portuguese custom-house at Quilimane, the principal mouth of the Zambesi being blocked by a bar; then in 1889 the navigability of its Chinde channel was discovered, offering an open waterway by which steamers

could gain the main stream of the great river and turn up its tributary the Shiré. The passage of the Shiré is quite clear up to Chiromo, where comes in the Ruo from Mlanje, the highest mountain mass of the protectorate (nearly 10,000 feet), and the southern end of the central African elevation. By small steamers the Shiré is usually navigable farther up to Katunga, beyond which comes a stretch of rapids, but canoes can sometimes be taken as far as the Murchison Falls, that form a complete barrier. Above this steamers ply freely on the Upper Shiré, through the lake known as South Nyassa, and into the great Nyassa, from the head of which a broad way, known as the Stevenson Road, has been cleared towards Tanganyika.

Coffee Plant, Shiré Highlands. (From a photograph.)

Of the few hundred white men who as yet have sought fortune among nearly a million of native inhabitants, the majority are found in the Shiré Highlands, on the left bank of this river's middle course, that farther down flows by an unwholesome stretch of tall grasses and palms known as the Elephant Marsh, which has been set apart as a great game preserve. The heights here rise several thousand feet above the sea, offering a climate in which Europeans can live and work, not indeed without liability to fever, which at first attacked nearly every new-comer, but is now escaped by many through precautions taken against exposure and mosquito bites; while the mortality of the dreaded "blackwater" has been much reduced by experienced treatment. There is a rainfall of 50 inches, more or less, chiefly in winter. In the drier summer season the ground may be whitened by morning frosts or hail-storms of ice. Familiar fruits and vegetables have been brought to grow where exiled eyes are cheered by the sight of homely bracken and blackberries among the exuberant and grotesque

forms of African vegetation; the Australian eucalyptus also has been introduced to rival the pride of the native baobab and bombax. The chief commercial product was at first coffee, which grows wild in many parts of Africa; but most of the plantations here, making such a fine show with their scented white blossoms and red berries displayed against dark glossy leaves, have been raised out of a single coffee-plant imported from the Edinburgh Botanical Gardens. This throve so well on its native soil that Shiré coffee commanded an exceptionally high price in the London market, and its cultivation offered a career for young men who have more taste for out-of-door pursuits than for competitive examinations.

The chief settlement is Blantyre, the port for which is Katunga, 25 miles off, and a railway to it has been made from Chiromo. The nucleus of this place was the Scotch Church Mission, whose imposing red-brick church with white domes makes a wonder for the natives and the finest building of Central Africa. The red soil here affords a brick that, with iron roofs painted red, shows prettily against the green in buildings as yet scattered amid thick avenues of acacias, cypresses, and the eucalyptus-trees. A little way off is the head-quarters of the African Lakes Company, Mandala, that got its name from the fact of the company's manager wearing spectacles, which is the native meaning of the word, and the custom being to call a town after its chief. With its public buildings, club, hotels, and stores, this double place makes an infant metropolis for the Shiré planters, where society is found already *exigeant* as to dressing for dinner and other observances that keep white men from the ready danger of slovenly reversion to the savage among naked neighbours. The natives, too, are schooled into unpicturesque decency about this embryo city. Many of them bear Christian names, taken often from the Bible, and have learned at missionary schools to speak an English sometimes oddly flavoured with biblical expressions. Some have advanced so far as to start coffee-planting for themselves, not altogether to the admiration of white competitors. The use of money is increasing among them, while in out-of-the-way parts wages may be still paid in goods, especially the white calico worth two or three pence a yard, which has been the usual currency. Most of the people seem as ready to settle down to peaceful occupations as they were for war when the unscrupulous Arabs put firearms into their hands and taught them to prey upon their neighbours. Some warrior tribes, such as the Angoni, on the west of Lake Nyassa, steeled by a domination of Zulu invaders, or the Yaos of the other side, converted to Moslem cruelty by the slave-raiders, may take longer in taming, but our experience of conquest has shown how we come to be best friends in the end with subjects who had made the sturdiest enemies, like the Indian Sikhs, that supplied a police force for this hot dependency in its early days.

The official capital is Zomba, in the north of the Shiré Highlands, whence the commissioner keeps a look-out over his twelve districts, each with its fort or other seat of government. Zomba has got the length of publishing a fortnightly paper, chiefly as organ of official announcements. Revenue is raised by a hut-tax, a gun-tax, by the sale of land at from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* an acre, and by the issue of stamps. As collectors know, B. C. A. has its own postage system. Justice is administered by Government officials, and under them by native headmen. Two battalions of native troops have been so well trained by British officers as to be sent for service to other parts of Africa; the Protectorate has also a small navy of steamers manned mainly by the "Sidi boys", who

serve as stokers on our Eastern lines, and officered from the Royal Navy. Great activity has been shown in the making of roads, on which travellers are carried in *machila* hammocks, and goods on the heads of porters. Bicycles appear here; and horses can be used in the highlands once they are brought up safely through the domain of the poisonous tsetse-fly.

Coffee has of late been less profitable in this region, where promising experiments are being made in other cultures, such as tobacco; and the gathering of rubber seems likely to be a valuable resource. Iron is abundant, as is copper in the adjacent Katanga country, and there are gold and coal which may come to be profitably worked. Salt is obtained from marshes, and from the ashes

View from Mandala, with Blantyre Church in the distance. (From a photograph.)

of plants. The native crops include several useful grains and vegetables. There is fine timber in the forests, hitherto so much wasted that the valuable *Widdringtonia Whytei* pine, compared to the cedars of Lebanon, was saved from extinction just in time.[1]

Unfortunately the first flush of hope here appears to have fallen a little dull. If all accounts be true, planters have left the Protectorate in disgust, their usual

[1] From Sir H. H. Johnston, to whom we are indebted for pictures of several parts of Africa, our pages might again borrow descriptions of a colony he did so much to foster by his administration; but we must be content with a general impression of its beauties as lovingly dwelt on by his pen—of the rich flowering growths here not drowned in too thick leafage as in the Congo forests and on the Guinea coast—of the highlands in spring "gorgeous with lakes of azure-blue and mauve, stretches of pinkish-white, mounds of rose-tint, columns of purple, sheets of ultramarine, circles of orange, constellations of pure white, stains of blood-red, billows of yellow,"—of the river banks overhung by "gallery woods" lighted up by such illumination of flowers and fruits—of the backwaters and marshes choked with the kingly papyrus and other rushes—of the upland plains beginning to be cleared for culture—of the mountains with their wall-like sides, on which through forests of conifers one rises to Alpine heaths and pastures of wiry grass, dotted with flowerets about the naked ribs that peep out here and there at this southern end of Africa's backbone.

grievance being a humanitarian administration that treats the childlike native so much like a man and a brother as not to let him be forced to work against his will. The trouble, here as elsewhere, is want of cheap labour. The natives take more kindly to violent forms of football and hockey than to steady employment, their services being specially deficient at the planting and weeding seasons, when they may have their own crops to see to. A certain number of them, drawn off to the higher wages of South African mines, came back demoralized in the local employers' point of view. The making of the railway from the river, by raising wages, has gone to neutralize the benefit of improved carriage. It may be long before the Portuguese are able to get this line extended to their frontier on the Ruo from the coast. And what trade comes with the railway and the steamers is apt to fall into the hands of Indian *banyas*, a pushing class now found far into the interior. The cost of living goes up along with the cost of production. So the British settler who hoped to get the cream of the country's development, often finds himself superintending an account of loss rather than gain, while the British government cannot retire from an experiment that began by shattering the framework of native society. This colony, as well as East Africa, has now been taken under the maternal wing of the Colonial Office.

Few settlers are found as yet on the Chartered Company's vast estate of Northern Rhodesia, which adjoins British Central Africa to the west, above an awkward projection of Portuguese territory. Here the rail from Victoria Falls has now been pushed through North-eastern Rhodesia, where the chief station is Fort Jameson, on a high plateau to the east of the Loangwa river, and the most notable landmark a monument to Livingstone on the site of the great tree beneath which his heart was buried by his native servants. But a so-slightly-organized province, dovetailing as it does into our possessions south of the Zambesi, may be better dealt with when we have taken a general view of South Africa. A certain amount of vagueness and overlapping in the account of this region only reflects its actual state as a *rudis indigestaque moles*.

The A B C in British Central Africa. (From a photograph.)

# SOUTH AFRICA

## WHITE MAN'S AFRICA

The triangular southern end of Africa, resembling in shape the Indian Deccan, has certain marked characteristics of its own, while it makes a miniature of the whole continent, in its formation of terraced uplands, rising into mountains which here too have their loftiest range on the eastern side; in its suddenly swollen rivers, sometimes sucked up by sands or marshes or shrinking lakes; and in its strong alternations of heat and cold by day and night. Naturally, this region bears a closer comparison with the north of Africa, where, too, the central exuberance of hothouse vegetation is thinned by diminished rainfall and distance from the Equator. But the ocean waves give a kindlier environment than the desert sands; and in the south the climate is better tempered than in the north, the rains on the whole more distributed, the winds more regular, and the heats less overwhelming than in the corresponding latitude above the Equator. In a word, this is a healthy zone where white men can not only live and work, but thrive and multiply.

A strong infusion of white blood is the new tint of population we have to note here among blending native stocks. The aboriginal inhabitants seem represented by the stunted Bushmen, scattered and secluded like the pygmy tribes of Central Africa, dwelling in deserts and caves on the edge of more promising regions from which they have been hunted away by the early settlers, to whom their poisoned arrows sometimes made them dangerous enemies. They had one talent, for drawing and painting, which in many places has left remarkable pictures on the rocks as memorials of their once wider range. Originally akin to them, apparently, are the taller Hottentots, who were the chief race disturbed by white men in the south-western part of the promontory. These native South African races are clearly distinguished by their speech, which, using suffixes instead of the Bantu prefixes, has an elaborate structure out of all proportion to their development in other respects; and it is also remarkable for peculiar clicking sounds beyond the vocal organs of a European, to whom they suggest the cackling of geese; but this uncouth speech is dying out. The Hottentots were a stupidly barbarous people, with yellowish-brown skin, black woolly hair, flat noses, and thick lips, and that remarkable development of the buttocks that makes one of the points of a Hottentot Venus. They went dressed in skin *karosses*, the rough side of which they turned inward in cold weather, their indispensable garment being a small leather apron, with a liberal allowance of grease and paint. Their dwellings were low beehive-shaped huts of matting, grass, or branches, clustered together in circular villages

Kaffir Woman and Child. (From a photograph.

called *kraals*, a word that has become familiar to us all. The wild Hottentot has almost disappeared, though many "Totties" live among the settlements in a servile state; and there are considerable communities of the more or less civilized Bastard half-breeds between this race and the early colonists.

The Hottentots could be more easily subdued than their first conquerors, the Bantu Kaffirs, who were found most thickly settled on the eastern side, having flowed down from the heart of the continent to its southern end, where they now make the majority of population. The Hamite aristocracy that checked their progress to the north is here replaced by a stimulation of warlike force in one branch of the race, the formidable Zulus, to other Bantu tribes what the Iroquois were to the feebler Algonquins whom we caught them exterminating. The soldiers of this stock, its conquering career southward barred by the sea, have turned back towards the Equator, here and there, as far as Lake Nyassa, establishing a fierce ascendency over their more peaceful kinsmen; but their superiority is mainly confined to the arts of war. They share the cruel superstitions of their neighbours and the negro's mental slavery to conjurors known to us as witch-doctors, or as rain-makers from the function frequently required of them in this dry end of Africa. Occasionally, among the Kaffirs, these priests rise to the rank of prophets, like that one who was able to persuade his people into killing all their cattle, on the strength of a revelation that such a sacrifice would secure the expulsion of the conquering whites, but the result was wide-spread starvation, clearing the way for fresh conquest. The political state is everywhere highly unstable, the tribes in turn splitting up or gathering together under some masterful chief, who may lead them far from

their original seat in search of plunder or pasture, a life that does not tend towards social development. The chief wealth of the Kaffirs is in cattle, tended by the men, while the women do what tilling they need. Wives are paid for by cattle or other possessions, and poverty is the only restriction upon polygamy, the *dearest* helpmeet looking duly down upon lower-priced members of the family. Their hereditary chiefs administer a law of custom with a despotic power often checked by assassination or secession. Slavery exists among them, though not to such a marked extent as in Central Africa. Cannibalism, in recent times at least, has been exceptional. There are traces here and there

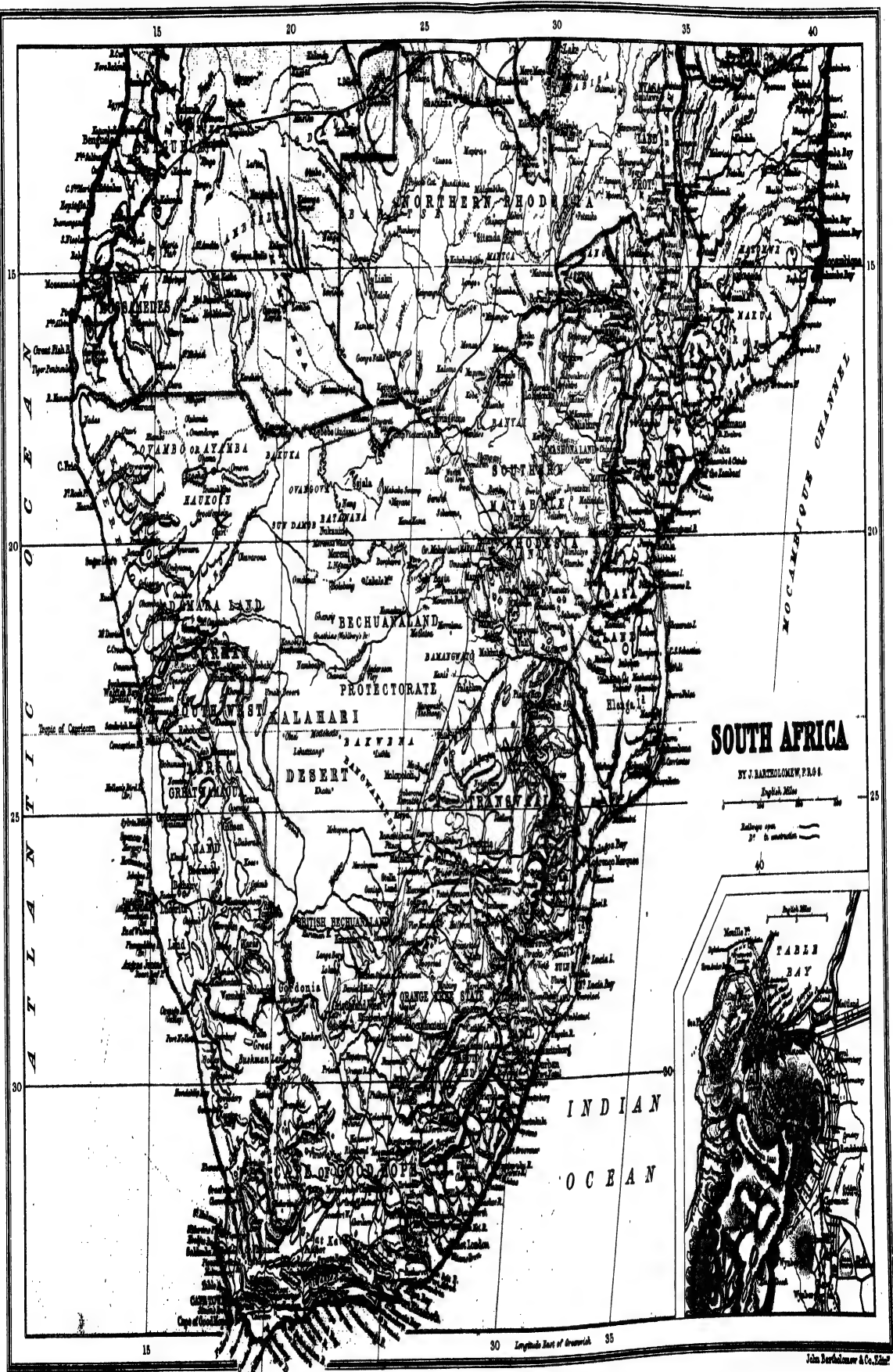
Photo. N. P. Edwards

Kaffir Miners, Johannesburg

of a higher organization, which suggest that the Bantu race, the most vigorous sons of the tropics, have been declining in culture as in numbers while the European grew into the moral and intellectual superiority that made him lord of the world. But now that peace is enforced over nearly all the countries of South Africa, the Kaffirs tend to increase at a rate which would endanger the colonies if these ex-warriors did not give bail for good behaviour by their appreciation of some material advantages of industrial life, and often by acceptance of missionary teachings. The colonists, for their part, seem disposed to think better of the half-wild "Red Kaffir", in his blanket and coat of grease, than of the more or less tamed and schooled "boy" who, arrayed in cast-off European clothes, learns too readily to make a beast of himself on liquor after the fashion of his masters. Under the name of the Ethiopian Church, negro preachers have here developed an independent form of Christian faith, looked upon with no small distrust by white men, as not cherishing the doctrine of their superiority.

The Dutch were practically the first white settlers in a land where, during two and a half centuries, they have been setting the stamp of their language on its natural features, its *bergs*, its *veldts*, its *kopjes*, its *kloofs*, and *klips*, cousins to our capes, clefts, and cliffs, as we are to the race with which we have had such hot family quarrels. The Dutch colony was reinforced by a strong strain of French Huguenots, seeking religious liberty among these fellow Calvinists. It was adulterated to some extent by an importation of negro and Malay slaves. Then came the British, whose masterful notions of freedom and philanthropy gave sore offence to the original Boer settlers, driving many of them farther into the wilds. The discovery of gold and diamonds in our time has attracted an international medley of not the best spirits of Europe. British immigration has been much on the increase of late; but the Dutch, by any of varying calculations, as yet remain the numerical majority among white men.

The natural features of South Africa exhibit in a less marked form, as already stated, those which we have seen north of the Equator. In the north-west corner is a desert, not so extensive nor so hopeless as the Sahara; in the south-east rises a block of mountains not so lofty as the Atlas; on the north side runs an overflowing river forming feverish swamps and a sandy delta like the Nile's, but on a smaller scale; on the south coast there are stretches of well-watered land, lying beneath arid plateaux, as on the Barbary coast. These different surfaces provide a great variety of flora, from thick forests to humble heaths; but the commonest characteristic is dry upland plains, with a vegetation of thorny shrubs and coarse grasses, soon withered up, to be revived by rain. On the "high veldt" one may travel far without coming to a tree large enough to cast a welcome shade, while the "bush veldt" is clad with scrubby plants, sometimes tangled so thickly together that a man might almost walk on them but for their prickly points. The rich forests are on the mountain slopes that get the lion's share of rain. Elsewhere we find rather what the Germans call "gallery woods", marking the edge of water-courses, and these are oftenest of stunted mimosa or other acacias, with willows for a refreshing change among thorny brush, over which here and there stands up a cedar or a baobab, but more commonly the stiff fleshy limbs of the euphorbia, so frequent a feature in Africa's sunburnt plains. For the climate of this region is in general hot and dry, bracing to man but withering to the vegetation that in the tropics poisons him by its rotting rankness. The interior has a deficiency of rain which often comes to the point of blighting drought. Some parts would never be watered but for thunderstorms generated among the mountains that bar out more gentle cloud visitations. At night the uplands may be sharply cold, but the sun soon prompts one to take off one's coat. Snow is rare, unless on high mountain-tops. The day temperature ranges in most parts from 40 to 90 degrees, its extremes made tolerable by the dryness of the air. In the north, greater heat may be experienced, for, with the topsy-turvy of seasons that so much puzzles a stay-at-home European, it is the north wind that comes from the Equatorial furnace, while the southern end of the promontory lies more open to cooling breezes from the Antarctic ice. This variety of climate and conditions streaks the region below the Tropic of Capricorn, where to the unspectacled eye are presented such great stretches of barren soil or monotonous herbage, yet, as a whole, it is singularly rich from the botanist's point of view.

As to its fauna, South Africa naturally is the home of most of the wild

beasts found in the continent, though man-like apes are here replaced by the baboon, and other monkeys are scarce. Its great plains, indeed, are specially adapted to be the habitat of big game, as we know from the books of many modern Nimrods, who with their batteries of heavy magazine rifles and explosive bullets have made such havoc among the swarming herds that they find their victims growing rarer, even beyond the bounds of the advancing settlements. The lion, now confined to the northern part of this region, is said to have developed a certain shyness which keeps him from roaring in his "fearless old fashion", and globe-trotters of the next generation will have a poor chance of seeing, as Lord Randolph Churchhill did, the long grass become alive with yellow animals "trooping and trotting along like a lot of enormous dogs", willing enough to make room for man, though terrible when excited by a wound. As in the case of the tiger, the lion has naturally no appetite for human flesh. Those that do take to man-eating are believed to be driven to it through infirmities, perhaps bad teeth, as Aristotle asserts; but it is said that once having tasted this meat they come to prefer it to any other. The native dwellings have sometimes been found perched on poles or in the branches of trees, for fear of hungry lions that would break through the thin walls of a hut to drag forth their prey. Elsewhere they are looked on as welcome neighbours for the chance of a feast on their leavings; and on the whole, the king of beasts seems not to impose much awe in South Africa, where in size and other respects he is so inferior to the lion of the north as to have been reckoned a different species. This notion is scouted by Mr. Selous, whose experience of many lions varying in size and colour leads him to think that one might as well count twenty species as the three—black-maned, yellow-maned, and maneless—into which the race has been divided; and the lion's shorn mane here may well be accounted for by the thorny shrubs among which he has to ply his butchering. As protection against his attacks, the thorns come in useful to make a *skerm* round the traveller's camp, like the *zariba* of North Africa.

The elephant also is in danger of becoming extinct here as elsewhere. Small herds still linger in the south-eastern forests, but on the south side of the Zambesi, where twenty years ago Mr. Selous has seen nearly two hundred together, he found them every year scarcer and wilder. The African elephant seems to have been caught and tamed in classical days like his Indian brother, but has long been left running wild, hunted down wherever he could be reached, for food and for the sake of his valuable tusks, the female, too, having smaller ones, while those of the male may weigh over 200 lbs. The natives themselves are keen hunters of such a prize, bombarding him with their poisoned darts and arrows till his thick skin bristles like a porcupine's, digging pits for him *à la* Jack the Giant Killer, or setting a great booby-trap in the trees so that a heavily-weighted spear shall descend upon his neck. In approaching an African forest village one must always beware of the traps and snares set for game. Sometimes setting the long grass on fire and chasing the scared animals into ravines, a tribe will have a big battue; in one such a missionary has known of two hundred elephants killed among the head-waters of the Congo. But it is only now and then, in most cases, that naked sportsmen are able to bag so big a quarry, while white hunters, keen for gain, carry on a destructive campaign among the herds; though indeed an elephant may take

dozens of ill-aimed bullets to kill him, and a proud man is he who has contrived to bring down a couple with a right and left shot.

The hippopotamus is another prize for the natives, his fat carcass tasting like pork or veal, while his thick hide makes spears and whips; but white hunters do not so much persecute him now that his ivory is no longer in demand for artificial teeth. "Hippos" are still plentiful about the Zambesi, as in almost all shallow waters of Central Africa, where they will be found at their unwieldy gambols by thousands, sometimes plunging away, shy as water-rats, when disturbed, sometimes upsetting a boat out of mere stupid awkwardness or mischievous play; and a "rogue" hippopotamus appears to be a most undesirable acquaintance. More vicious is the short-sighted and clumsy rhinoceros, the unicorn of old fable, that charges with a snort like a steam-engine, terrifying the hunter's horse at the moment he has need of a steady hand and eye. The large white rhinoceros of South Africa is almost exterminated; the leaner and worse-tempered black one may still be met south of the Zambesi, where his armour-like hide as well as the hippo's is in demand for making the formidable sjambok whips of the Dutch settlers. These sulky creatures go singly or in pairs, and are much given to fighting among themselves as well as with their neighbours in the wilds. Lions are said to shun an encounter with the horn, from which an elephant does not always come off best. To slay a rhinoceros may well be a Kaffir warrior's proudest feat, and this creature disputes with the African buffalo the character of being the most savage and dangerous native of the continent. The herds of buffalo, to which a wary hunter gives a wide berth, are said to have been thinned out in Zambesia by the rinderpest that made such destruction among cattle. The northern rivers still harbour the crocodile, that lives chiefly on fish, but will snap off the land an unwary victim, two-legged or four-legged, whose body it has a trick of burying in the bank for economical consumption, as a dog does with bones. When pressed by hunger, indeed, it is asserted that this irresistible creature will even land and attack people in their houses.

The giraffe, the zebra, which has been occasionally tamed and set to work, his cousin the quagga, and other graceful wild beasts, are giving place to cattle and sheep, preyed on still in out-of-the-way parts by the leopard, which the Dutch settlers call the tiger, and by the more cowardly hyena, striped or spotted, here bearing the name of wolf; also by tiger-cats, wild dogs, and troops of jackals. On the thinly-peopled plains may be seen great herds of African antelopes, the eland the largest, the koodoo the handsomest of the race, and others christened by the Dutch with such names as *wildebeest*, *hartebeest*, *klipspringer*—in all, over thirty species. In the northern parts, the wart-hog, or wild boar, gives more exciting sport. But all these are retreating so fast before farms and towns that it would be useless to trace the present limits of their habitat. And if, as we passed through the wildernesses of the continent, too little has been said of what is its chief attraction for many travellers, it is because there would be no end to the stories of thrilling slaughter which fill countless books. So great has been the butchery in some districts, that, where European authority is established, on the Nile, and on the Lakes, as in South Africa, efforts are being made to restrict the love of sport by which certain animals seem threatened with utter extinction. Some, such as the giraffe, are forbidden to the hunter altogether; for some he must take out costly licences, allowing

him perhaps to shoot a couple of elephants for £25; or reservations are marked out, within which the dwindling tribes may live and multiply in peace except for four-footed poachers.

South Africa is less tempting to anglers, its sleepy mud-fish and various kinds of big barbel giving not so good sport as the fierce tiger-fish of the malarious lower waters; but trout are now being acclimatized in the upper streams. This country is well stocked with the great birds of the continent, bustards, herons, cranes, flamingoes, and other water-fowl; eagles, hawks, vultures, birds of prey and of carrion. There are others more distinguished for beautiful plumage than for melodious song, rainbow-coloured sun-birds, gorgeous cuckoos, the game-birds known as Cape pheasants and pigeons, and the Kaffrarian grosbeak, which at one season has such a long tail that he can neither walk nor fly out of his uneasy seclusion. A curiosity of feathered life is the "sociable" grosbeak, that builds hundreds of nests together in a thatch of grass filling up a whole tree. Another is the honey-bird, a cuckoo declared to have wit enough to guide men by its chirping invitation to the natural hives of bees which it cannot plunder by itself. Two kinds of bees, a large and a small, are very common, as well as many other insects of which Dr. Watts would find it hard to say any good. The long-legged secretary-bird, which gets its name from a crest of feathers stuck like a pen in its head, is kept by the colonists about their farmyards to prey on the snakes that make its natural diet. The greatest bird of all, the ostrich, might by this time have been exterminated over a wider area but for its being confined in a quasi-domesticated state which lets its valuable feathers be turned to profit.

The Zambesi basin makes a division, in some respects a transition, between Central and Southern Africa. South of this the principal rivers are the Orange and the Limpopo, flowing to the west and east coasts respectively. Of these we shall speak in dealing with the different divisions of this region, all which, except the thinly-peopled coast provinces occupied by Germany and Portugal, now belongs to Great Britain, a territory seven times as large as the United Kingdom, with a population of some six or seven millions, of whom more than a million are white men.

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## ZAMBESIA

The Zambesi, "Great Water", is in size the fourth river of the continent. Its course of nearly 2000 miles, shared between the decrepit Portuguese dominion and the energetically expanding lands of Rhodesia, passes along a belt of almost equatorially exuberant vegetation, and by the homes of people who, when white men first came among them, were often found above mere savagery, though the pressure of war and the feeble organization of Bantu society had driven them into shifting and incoherent tribes, sometimes mingled with oppressors of bolder temper. This is the region of Livingstone's earlier travels, where his heart yearned to introduce the seeds of a better life among scenes that tempted him to forget the hovering fears of conquest, massacre, and misbelief by which they were overclouded. "How often have I beheld", he exclaims, "green grassy meadows, the cattle feeding, the goats browsing, the kids skipping, the groups of herd-boys with miniature bows, arrows, and spears; the women

wending their way to the river with watering-pots poised jauntily on their heads; men sewing under the shady banians; and old gray-headed fathers sitting on the ground, with staff in hand, listening to the morning gossip, while others carry trees or branches to repair their hedges; and all this, flooded with the bright African sunshine, and the birds singing among the branches before the heat of the day has become intense, form pictures which can never be forgotten!"

The exact source of the Zambesi is hardly yet a settled point; but its head-streams rise to the south of the Congo watershed, some of them not far from the Lualaba arm of that river. The stream taken as the main one begins its career

In the Barotse Valley: Farm Produce for Sale. (From a photograph taken for the Paris Society for Evangelical Missions.)

as erratically as the Congo, making a bold bend first westward, then to the south, where, about 13 degrees below the Equator, it has the name of the Liba or Liambai. Taking in the Lunge-bungo from the north-west and the Kabompo from the north-east, it soon becomes known under its more famous name, now forming the western boundary of Rhodesia. The Portuguese right bank remains rather blank on maps, till the tributaries from that side shall have been better traced. On the left bank lies the Barotse country, home of an unusually large aggregation of tribes, which have accepted our rule so completely that their black king, his native crown of ostrich feathers laid aside, lately appeared in frock-coat and tall hat to witness the Coronation festivities, and to visit his sons at school in England. His people, who seem to have emigrated from Mashonaland, are naturally intelligent and industrious above other tribes, but they share the superstitions and barbarous customs of the dark continent, and the tool they are most familiar with is the *assegai*, the South African javelin, that serves them as weapon, spade, pickaxe, knife, and razor, while a gun is a mark of

## THE VICTORIA FALLS, ON THE ZAMBESI

The Victoria Falls, dividing the Upper from the Middle Zambesi, are unquestionably one of the grandest natural sights of the African continent. The river here plunges into a gorge nearly four hundred feet deep, narrowing at the same time from over a thousand to about twenty yards. Several islands, chiefly Boaruka and Livingstone, break the breadth of the river at the falls. Leaping Water or Devil's Cataract is on the extreme right, and the Eastern Cataract on the extreme left; between these are the Main Fall and the Rainbow Fall, the latter of which is shown on the plate. The foreground shows the beginning of the forty-mile zigzag gorge or canyon below the falls, with Danger Point on the left, and the Knife Edge on the right. These falls have been described by Livingstone (who first revealed them to the civilized world in 1855) and other travellers, and they are regarded by many as surpassing Niagara in grandeur and beauty. Their special charm consists in the mist and spray which play ceaselessly about them, and the beautiful double rainbow which illuminates the mist. They can now be reached from Cape Town by a railway, which crosses the gorge on a bridge and is being continued northwards.

W. Ellerton Fry

VICTORIA FALLS, ON THE ZAMBESI RIVER

respectability and a rifle of aristocracy. Missionaries are introducing clothes and other civilities among them; then it is hoped that the king's visit to England may have the effect of modifying a somewhat too ready "Off with his head" form of government, in which one high officer of state has, or had, the delicate duty of soothing the royal wrath, and even the minor chiefs could sentence to cruel executions and tortures. This region has had a curious recent history. In Livingstone's time it was oppressed by Makololo warriors from the south, against whom the Barotse made a successful revolt, while a mingled band of both peoples that accompanied Livingstone to the east has, under the once redoubtable name of Makololo, fixed a similar domination upon several tribes of the Lower Shiré.

The basin of the Zambesi here appears to have been formerly a great lake, over whose level bed the river still overflows widely in the rainy season, when tall ant-hills stand up as islands of refuge for unhappy families of flooded-out animals. In dry weather, again, its tributaries are not always able to reach it, lost in thirsty sands or swamps; then the great flood itself shrinks into a channel a few hundred yards wide, farther south broken by cascades and rapids that allow only stretches of canoe travel. But still farther down, the first steamer above the great falls was launched in 1902. At the north-east corner of a long narrow projection of German territory, interposed between the British and Portuguese spheres, it turns to the east, soon afterwards taking in on the right bank the Chobe or Cuando River from the Angola highlands. It is a mile broad above the "Thundering Smoke", named Victoria Falls by Livingstone in 1855, the roar of which is heard ten miles away, and high columns of cloudy vapour and snowy spray fall back in continual rain upon the evergreen banks and islands, where, through a cleft of basalt rock, the whole river seems at first as if swallowed up in the bowels of the earth, a volume of water several times larger than Niagara's falling to a much greater depth, to be compressed into a gigantic swirl over narrow rapids. Here an iron bridge, 650 feet long and 420 feet above the water, carries the Rhodesian railway across the river, where it has already advanced some hundreds of miles further north, through a country as yet little known to white men except officials and missionaries. In 1905, the Falls were visited by a party of British Association excursionists. Scientific enterprise is now proposing to turn such a mighty force of nature to account in the generation of electric power to be conveyed to the mines of Southern Rhodesia; but experts seem to be at loggerheads as to the practicability or profit of this project.

Below the great falls the Zambesi enters upon its calmer middle course, still roughened here and there by rapids, while feverish swamps and forests, infested by the tsetse-fly, make land travel difficult in its valley. Turning north-eastward, it flows through the native lands of Rhodesia. On the right side it receives the rushing streams of Matabeleland and Mashonaland, to which we shall return anon. On the left the Kafue or Loenge and the Loangwa come down from the south side of the Congo watershed, passing through tribes of whom there is little to tell but confused tales of barbarity and bloodshed, and vague reports of gold that, if confirmed, would soon bring them many visitors. This country is Northern Rhodesia, of whose features and capabilities we have still imperfect accounts from daring explorers like Mr. Selous, who not many years ago was robbed and nearly murdered by warriors going stark naked but taking the trouble to twist their hair into a sharp pointed cone continued by a

thin strip of flexible antelope horn to the height of several feet. A variety of such unsophisticated people is to be brought under the influence of two agencies of the Chartered Company, one dealing with the western side of North Rhodesia and the Barotse country, the other with the neighbours of British Central Africa.

The Zambesi next runs eastward through the hinderland of the Portuguese coast, an unhealthy region where Portugal is master only in name, through the feeble authority of black or half-caste "captains" who have neither will nor power to suppress the native cruelties, while the few whites are "mere wrecks of men",

Photo, W. Rausch, Bulawayo

On the Zambesi

frail, yellow, and fever-stricken, a contrast to the robust Senga blacks with their strange trick of swelling out the lips by plugs of metal or ivory inserted in them. The Portuguese stations have decayed with the ruin of the slave-trade, which it is this nation's shame to have winked at till forced into grudging humanity by the sentiment of all Christendom. At the chief place, Tete, the Catholic church had not long ago fallen to be a fetish temple for heathen blacks, overgrown by the rank jungle that seems a type of Portuguese decadence; but this station is said to have revived lately as head of the navigation of the Lower Zambesi, hence free to its mouth, about 300 miles below, by a channel now deeply and narrowly pent between cliffs, now opening out into a shallower bed several miles wide.

By the Shiré confluence Portuguese rule comes into touch with the more healthy moral and physical condition of British Central Africa, to the east of which Portugal owns similar rich highlands, with magnificent scenery, inviting

her to carry out a like regenerating experiment. From these heights, rising to several thousand feet, the river turns south-east through the flat and feverish coast-land, where the name of Portuguese dominion extends northwards and southwards for hundreds of miles on either side of the marshy and sand-choked delta through which the Zambesi feebly makes its shifting way to the sea. Till recently the chief port was Quilimane on a branch which had become banked off from the main stream; but into this latter vessels can now enter by the Chinde mouth, a discovery that, as we have seen, came just in time for the growth of our Shiré settlements.

The Portuguese Mozambique coast, separated by the Mozambique Channel from Madagascar, extends for 16 degrees from Cape Delgado and the mouth of the Rovuma to Delagoa Bay. It has been divided into two provinces, that north of the Zambesi keeping the old name of Mozambique from the island and town which was one of the oldest of European settlements south of the Equator, and earlier, a great Arab emporium of eastern commerce. Its main export is ground-nuts, to supply much of our "pure olive-oil", as do the cocoa-nuts thriving on this coast. The southern province takes the title of Lorenzo Marquez from its chief port on Delagoa Bay, that owes a certain comparative prosperity to the neighbourhood of more vigorous communities than the ex-convict and half-caste colonists who here represented Portugal, when its idle claims to domination over the whole Zambesi basin came to be roughly shoved aside both north and south of this great river. But as a European colony the Portuguese coast has so little importance that it may be treated under another head.

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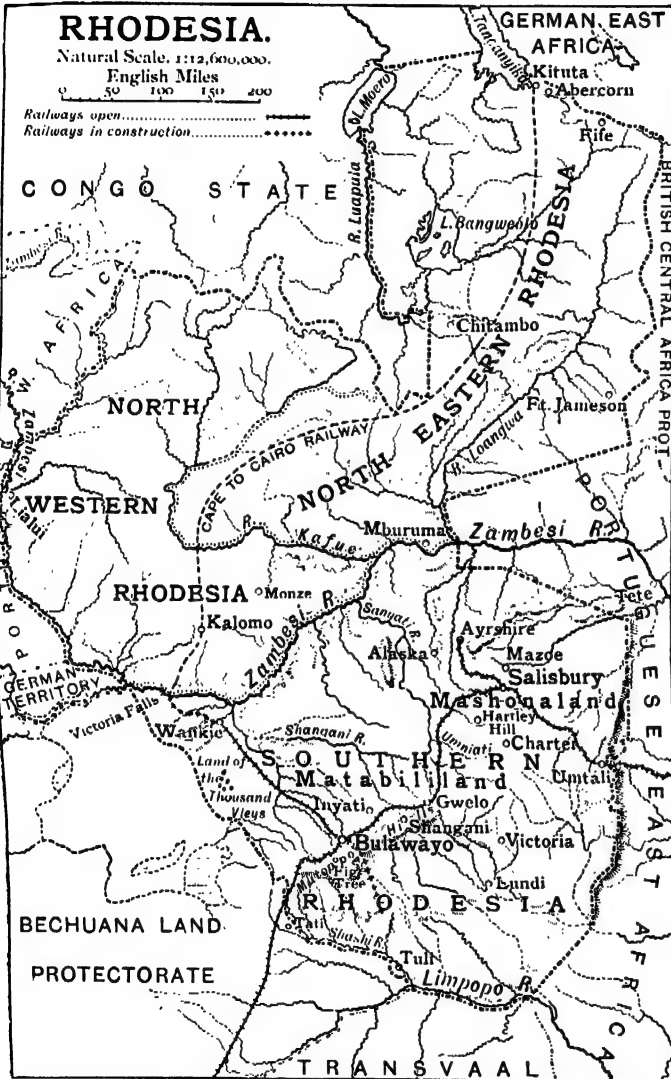
## RHODESIA AND ITS BORDER-LANDS

It is hard to find an inclusive title for the region south of the Zambesi. Rhodesia, making a central stretch of it, extends to the north of the river; but the core of settlement is in Southern Rhodesia, that may be taken as the most expansive as well as the most considerable colony of this region, for which the name Zambesia seems not to be permanently accepted. From the Zambesi to the Limpopo on the east, and from the Cunene to the Orange River on the west side, we have a zone of country till our own day held by native tribes or feeble Portuguese settlements, but now apportioned between civilized powers, whose first concern was to keep their rivals off claims they had "pegged out" for themselves before always being ready to occupy them. The next generation will better be able to judge the value of these acquisitions, at present decried by some as loudly as vaunted by others. As usual, our country seems to have been the most active and the most lucky in the scramble for lordship of lands, whose inhabitants, with their sharp assegais and knobkerry clubs, were continually ousting or exterminating each other. Without dwelling too much on brand-new political boundaries, let us run over the main features of this zone, beginning at the west coast, which is the German share.

German South-West Africa is Germany's oldest colony on the continent, its history now covering some score of years. It has the advantage of a comparatively healthy coast-line, cooled, like the Portuguese district of Mossamedes to the north, by currents of air and water from the Antarctic. Its aspect is

not inviting, the shore being a monotonously desolate stretch of sand-hills, ridge behind ridge, faced by a *chevaux de frise* of breakers; and at one time the whole interior was believed to be no more attractive, else perhaps we might not have been so ready to let foreigners gain a footing here. Now that the hinderland becomes better examined, its barren rim is found rising to steppes and high plateaux, on which jagged hills in the central part attain an elevation of 7000 feet or so. These uplands, often so pitted and torn as to suggest the disfigurement of small-pox, are in general dry and stony, the thin rainfall gushing down their ravines only now and then, while here and there brackish lakes called "pans" have gathered in the hollows; and hot springs well up from below as a hint of volcanic energy shown in occasional earthquakes. But also there are grassy plains and patches of cultivable ground, which the Germans hope to foster and extend by drawing water out of the earth's subterranean reservoirs, or by damming up the intermittent streams. Oats, maize, &c., are grown in favourable spots, as well as vines and other European fruits and vegetables, which on the high ground may have to endure severe frosts as well as torrid suns. The north part is the least dry, where, indeed, malarious marshes form a link with the equatorial conditions, and baobabs, palms, even thick forests shade the ground. Among the central heights seem to be the best grazing lands, whose native inhabitants were found cattle-owners on a large scale. The southern end is the most stony and barren region of the plateau; yet this was the nucleus of the German colony founded by Herr Lüderitz of Bremen, under the original name Lüderitzland. The whole of the shore-line also, where for nearly a thousand miles not a single perennial stream finds its way to the sea,[1]

[1] The least unsatisfactory stream seems to be the Omaruru, in the centre, of which M. Reclus says that it flows into the Atlantic "probably at least once a year".

has no value unless for an abundance of fish which attracts great flocks of wild fowl, their guano enriching islands off the southern coast. These rocks, bearing such names as Roast-Beef Island, Plum-Pudding Island, and Penguin Island, mostly remain British possessions. The interior appears to be well mineralized, copper, iron, and lead having been already found, and lately diamonds, that give sparkling promise of a German Kimberley.

The forbidding coast has few havens, and this colony is under the great disadvantage that Britain keeps in her own hands the chief one, Walfisch (Whalefish) Bay, with a patch of surrounding territory in the centre through which the Kuisip River fails for years together to reach the sea. On the north of this enclave the mouth of the Swakop River offers a roadstead adapted by the Germans as a harbour *faute de mieux.* To the south of it they have Sandwich or Sandfisch Haven, which seems rapidly silting up. Far to the south is Angra Pequena (Small Bay), about which was the nucleus of the colony founded by Herr Lüderitz, but from this hopeless region its head-quarters have been shifted to the central plains, where stands Great Windhook, the capital. To this a railway has been made from the Swakop mouth, all the more needful as the hauling of wagons up the dry heights is so difficult that camels have been imported to take the place of oxen killed off by rinderpest, an experiment, indeed, that does not seem to have prospered. There is an ambitious scheme on foot for starting a railway from Port Alexandra in Portuguese Angola, which should run across German territory into Bechuanaland, and on to Pretoria, thus brought 1000 miles nearer London than by the Cape.

The whole dominion, about 900 miles long by 400 broad, larger than the German empire, supports at present not much over 200,000 inhabitants, of whom between 3000 and 4000 are white men, about half of them Germans, and nearly half of these officials or soldiers. In the north is a body of Boers, who emigrated into the Portuguese Mossamedes territory, but left that uncongenial rule to set up a little republic of their own styled Upingtonia, which came to be amalgamated with the German state. They are likely to be reinforced by Boers trekking away from our conquest, but it is doubtful if these free-and-easy farmers will find themselves more at home under the rule of the Kaiser. The natives fall into three groups. In the north the Ovampo tribes belong to the Bantu race. In the central Damaraland the Bantus of the plains are neighboured by a mountain race with at least an admixture of Hottentot blood. The southern Namaqualand is the home of purer Hottentots, if pure be the word for a race held probably to represent a union of aboriginal Bushmen with more vigorous invaders from the north. Here are also scattered groups of Bastaards. The tribes have been largely Christianized by German and other missionaries long at work among them, but they retain their superstitious nature, and their inveterate tribal feuds that have hindered them from making effectual head against the German domination. Yet the young settlements were for years endangered by a fierce and obstinate rebellion, which seems still to blaze up here and there, after costly expeditions drove the native patriots into the deserts, to die miserably by thousands of hunger and thirst.

On the east the heights of this region fall into a great central plain, where Africa has sketched out a replica of her Soudan and Sahara belts. In its north-westward corner the Okavango and other intermittent streams struggle to lose themselves in the Ngami lake, which, when discovered by Livingstone,

was three days' journey round, swelling in the rainy season, then dwindling into shallow brackish ponds edged by reed swamps and salt crusts, a miniature of Lake Chad. There are many other shrinking lakes and pools in this quarter, that once probably made part of the great basin of the Zambesi, to which the Okavango's feeble flow is still diverted in the wet season. But during our own time they have been drying up, their feeders failing to reach them; and Ngami is now said to be a muddy marsh through which, for part of the year only, some water trickles on towards the salt lakes of Makari-kari farther east, while at other times its outlet may be swollen to a considerable stream. The animal and vegetable life which Livingstone found abundant in well-watered spots has withered away, and the whole country appears to be merging into the Kalahari Desert farther south. But, by barrages on the Okavango, there is a proposal to restore this desert, where we catch nature in the act of her unkind dealings with such great stretches of African soil.

The Kalahari, "Great Thirst Land", appears, indeed, to have been unduly made a bugbear. This wilderness of red sand and salt pans is only one-tenth the size of the Sahara, and not so completely desert. A "half-desert" is the description oftener applied to it by travellers, whose impressions, indeed, depend much on the season when it is traversed. Though it has no regularly running waters, the scanty rainfall gathers into pools at which its Bastaard, Bushman, and mongrel Bantu inhabitants can water their flocks, chiefly of hardy goats; and these natives know where to suck up water from the ground through a reed; while apes, antelopes, and other animals are able to eat and drink here; the lion himself can pick up a living. Some parts are green or yellow, according to the season, with tufts of coarse grass reaching to a horse's back; there are even thin woods of thorny acacia and other timber, stretches of dense bush and patches of flowers; and the ground is often thickly covered with root plants, "Bushman potatoes", prickly cucumbers, a kind of onion, and an abundance of the *sama* melon that affords both meat and drink to man and beast; then maize and other corn will grow where water can be turned upon this thirsty soil. It has more utterly barren sand ridges, among which the shy natives hide themselves; but these, too, when better known to white men, may turn out to shelter oases of struggling verdure. It is believed that by sinking wells much of the Kalahari might be reclaimed to a state of former prosperity hinted at by the report of extensive ruins on the Nosob River, which from near the south end of this desert flows intermittently as the Molopo to the Orange.

The Kalahari extends into the heart of Bechuanaland, a vast plain lying between the Orange and the Zambesi, over which the same sterile features are often extended by a deficiency of water. This is the home of kindred Bantu tribes, to whom we have given the collective name of Bechuana, unknown to themselves. In a state of slavery to them live the aboriginal Vaalpens, who are sometimes found tending their masters' flocks in the desert. These masters, in turn, have come under the power of aliens, the southern end of their country being added to the Cape Colony, and the northern reaches left in that state of limbo entitled a British protectorate, which means that we shall annex it when worth our while. The Bechuana people have accepted our domination without much reluctance, already, indeed, peacefully conquered by missionary efforts in which Livingstone's father-in-law, Dr. Moffat, was a pioneer nearly a century

ago. They are handsome, well-made Kaffirs, disposed to live in peace under any power that will protect their cattle, and their own superstitions were so vague that they have readily taken on a form of Christianity, while their strong turn for imitation leads them to adopt European clothes with the same facility; but critical travellers judge that their missionaries make too much of a conversion that has only to be scratched to show the savage. They live in organized communities under half a dozen hereditary chiefs. The most powerful of these rulers, Khama, in the northern district, became notable through a life-long zeal for our religion, and a prohibition of strong drink, in which he tried

Photo. W. Ellerton Fry

Khama's Huts, Palapye

to comprise not only the baneful spirits introduced by traders but the native beer, better described as "sour porridge" or a mess of fermenting millet. Khama is certainly a man of character, who as a mere youth took upon himself to carry out such innovations, and is accused of a natural disposition to play the head of his Church in quite Tudor fashion. Whatever may be thought of this chief, it was largely due to his influence that we took peaceable possession of a country as large as France, containing some 200,000 natives, but not much to tempt white settlers. Abandoning to the baboons his old capital, Shoshong, said to have been a gathering of 20,000 people, he removed to Palapye, which has a good chance of growing larger, as it stands on the railway; and it was soon the greatest native town in South Africa; but the chief again shifted his seat to Serowe, 40 miles west.

The east side of Bechuanaland, merging with the plateaux of the Transvaal, is not such a thinly populated desert as the west. Along this east side runs

the railway to the domains of the British South Africa, commonly known as the Chartered, Company. In the north-east corner one rises from featureless plain breaking into a rash of ant-hills and ant-bear holes, upon an undulating, well-wooded country studded here and there with red granite *kopjes*, or gigantic boulders, set in a rich green vegetation, "looking for all the world like Pre-Raphaelite Italian pictures". Thus we enter Southern Rhodesia, which is in the main a high upland wrinkled into ridges and bristling with those characteristic rocky points, its streams on one side flowing to the Zambesi, on the other to the Limpopo. The southern part of this is Matabeleland, so called from a body of Zulu warriors who settled here three-quarters of a century ago, exterminating, enslaving and terrorizing the less martial tribes around them. Their name is said to mean "people who disappear", *i.e.* behind their huge round shields. To the north of them live the Mashonas, whose bee-hive huts we found perched upon rocky heights out of reach of sudden Matabele raids that often sent them flying to still more inaccessible retreats; but since we have restored peace to the country they begin to venture themselves on opener ground. Both races are cattle owners; and the more industrious Mashonas have great skill in forging iron and even steel, which their tyrant neighbours were better able to use in the way of weapons. But it was the gold-reefs of the country that chiefly attracted British and Dutch adventurers and led to the formation of the Chartered Company, whose pioneering expedition in 1890 was directed to the more remote Mashonaland. Lobengula, the Matabele chief, grateful to Dr. Jameson for having relieved his sufferings from gout, did not object to the establishment of a line of forts as stepping-stones to the new territory; but his people soon fell out with the new-comers who threatened their bloodthirsty supremacy. The first Matabele war, in 1893, led to the conquest of Lobengula's country, and the chief died of chagrin or of disease, leaving his thirty wives to be supported by the Company. Two years later both Matabeles and Mashonas were inflamed afresh through the almost utter destruction of their cattle by the rinderpest; so when Dr. Jameson withdrew the white police force for his unlucky raid into the Transvaal, the tribes, stirred up by their savage priesthood, took this opportunity of rebelling with cruel outrages on isolated families, fiercely avenged by the colonists in arms against odds of ten to one. The Kaffir warriors, everywhere driven back, were finally persuaded to peace by the late Cecil Rhodes, who, to meet their chiefs, boldly trusted himself among the wildly picturesque Matoppo Hills near Bulawayo, on one of which, named by him the World's View, he came to be buried, amid an awed concourse of those old foemen.

This time the conquest seemed complete. The whole country, taking its name from that commanding figure whose unscrupulous energy and audacity excited such admiration in South Africa, among white men and black, is now administered by the Company of which he was the soul, checked by a representative of the British Government. Its white population has stood for some years at about 13,000, a good many of them of the "stony-broke" and "remittance men" class; and it seems notable that most of the original settlers have disappeared. The mines are not as yet very lucrative, nor the shares of the Company. About half the white men are concentrated at Bulawayo, once the chief *kraal* of Matabeleland, now a pretty place of red buildings straggling out among native greenery, where young Britons play football and cricket on the

scene of Matabele war-dances, and handsome buildings are growing fast about the tree that was Lobengula's seat of terrible justice. The official capital is Salisbury, in Mashonaland, as yet a smaller place that may be expected to grow with its improved communications. This lies near Mount Hampden, which, though a mere hill, stands over 5000 feet above the sea, and from its position on the edge of the plateau makes a conspicuous landmark. Farther on, in the north-east corner of Mashonaland, other prominent points have been named after such men as Darwin and Bismarck, by the first English and German explorers.

Photo W. Ellerton Fry

A Mashona Village

The early "trekking" had to be done by help of "Cape wagons" or carts, hauled along through thick and thin behind teams of a dozen to a score of oxen or mules, or even more might be needed to drag the heavy loads out of a hole; and anything like a road would be so much cut up by these lumbering vehicles that lighter ones could usually get on better by leaving the beaten way. It took two men to drive such a team, one to mind the reins, another to ply the long whip, the use of which is an art in itself, while both probably would contribute to the "language". Then in some parts the way is barred, not only by rocky heights and flooded streams, but by the tsetse-fly, whose bite is death to horses and cattle, and in the end to the more enduring donkey, while the humble pig seems immune. The "back-door way" to Mashonaland from the Portuguese coast passes through a "fly-belt" which effectually wrecked a proposed coach service on this route; and elsewhere the tsetse has proved more harmful to the development of South Africa than even the devastating

locusts,[1] or the termites that from their colossal ant-hills sally out to make war on timber, themselves preyed on by the mining ant-bear.

Horses in this country run a high risk of fatal infection, which destroys most of those where it breaks out, the poor beasts dying in a few hours. This is particularly common at the end of the rainy season and about new settlements, the road to which will be dotted with the skeletons of horses and mules that have died on the way. There are two forms of the ailment, the "thin" and the more virulent "thick head-sickness". A "salted" horse, one that has passed safely through the worse form, is immune, and becomes a most valuable possession here; so should be a donkey, which is not attacked. Oxen as well as horses are liable to deadly diseases, besides the risk of feeding on unwholesome pasture, or of dying by thousands in droughty seasons. With the white men, rinderpest spread over Rhodesia, infecting even the buffaloes and antelopes of the wilds, and killing off nearly all the natives' cattle, an exasperating visitation to people so fond of meat that they greedily eat diseased carcasses; and mice and caterpillars are titbits to them, as well as the locusts that ruin the fields on which they depend less than on their flocks. The rinderpest for a time paralysed locomotion in the new settlements; and the mounted police who keep order here may at any time be crippled by an outbreak of that horse-sickness that has cost the Chartered Company so dear. Against such scourges inoculation is now much practised; science also, in a way that should shock anti-vivisectors, seeks to spread infection among the locust swarms; and that pestilent tsetse-fly may die out with the great game of which it seems to be a parasite.

It is plain why Rhodes and his colleagues were so eager in pushing a railway up into their remote possessions, even amid the distraction of native warfare. Bulawayo, 1360 miles from Cape Town, is now joined to it by a single line of rail, carried on to Salisbury, whence another line runs down to the much nearer port of Beira, on the Portuguese coast. From Bulawayo the main line has been continued over the Zambesi, and the Victoria Falls now begin to appear in tourist programmes; but much water may have to flow to the sea before the ambitious project is realized of completing this road to Cairo through the lands of savage tribes for whom iron rails and copper wires are precious as gold and silver. By local lines it is proposed to exploit the coal-mines of Rhodesia, a supply the more valuable as the working of machinery needful to extract the gold from its beds of quartz reefs threatens to be a serious drain on the not-too-abundant timber within reach. Another difficulty is labour; the white men, themselves not too ready in taking off their own coats here, find cause for loud complaint in the laziness of the natives, who do not willingly work for others' gain, nor steadily for

[1] We have heard much of locusts in our passage through the continent; but it is hard to understand, without seeing it, the havoc they work. In the damp equatorial region they appear to be less active for destruction, their wings clogged by moisture that often makes them an easy prey to man and beast. It is to the thinner vegetation of the dry zones north and south that they come as a very plague. They seem to have made their appearance south of the Zambesi only in the last century, and it is in our own time that they have ruined whole districts. Travellers describe their coming up in such countless numbers as to cloud the sky and dim the light of the sun. Like heavy flakes of red snow, they begin to fall, first a few here and there, then by scores, at last by thousands, till the ground is hidden under them, perhaps for miles. In a few minutes the place where they have alighted is bare as a rock, stripped of every green leaf and blade. Nothing can stop them; if their march be crossed by a stream, they rush in, filling it up with their bodies and making a bridge for those pressing on behind. Nor when they have passed away is that always the last of them, for they may leave their eggs behind, to be hatched into a new swarm of young ones that in turn devour the revived vegetation. Flocks of birds follow the locust hosts, devouring them by hundreds as they fly; and when they have settled on the ground the antelopes and other animals browse on them like grass; but for every thousand so destroyed there are tens of thousands left to desolate the country through which they pass. At one time myriads of them fell into the sea and were washed on the Natal shore in such thick decaying masses as threatened to breed a pestilence.

their own. Fever hangs about the lower parts; but the windy granite plateau, at heights of several thousand feet, seems for the most part bracingly salubrious.

Gold is the lodestone that in our time brought eager adventurers to this country, where long ago others have come on the same quest. In many parts among the rocky hills are found overgrown ruins left by more skilful hands than those of the present inhabitants, always near traces of gold workings, deserted and so completely forgotten that it is hard to say who were these old gold-diggers. At one place two rusty cannon remained, perhaps from an early Portuguese settlement; at others Roman, Venetian, and Spanish coins are said to have been picked up. This is one of the several sites given for King Solomon's mines and

Photo. S. C. Turner, Bulawayo

Ruins at Zimbabwe, Rhodesia

the scriptural Ophir. The most striking ruins are at Zimbabwe, to the east of Bulawayo, a choked-up mass of temples and fortresses, with labyrinthine passages, mortarless walls, conical towers, rude monoliths, remains of rough sculpture and pottery, at one time taken for foreign workmanship; but well-qualified examiners declare these structures not beyond the ability of the Bantu race in the state of comparative civilization from which it seems here to have degenerated, and of a much thicker population, as shown by forts, pit-dwellings, and other remarkable remains at different parts of the country.

It may prove that those mysterious predecessors have skimmed the cream of Rhodesian gold-fields, where prospectors are always hoping to find some fresh bed as rich as the Witwatersrand of the Transvaal. In any case, settlers on this rough table-land, higher than any point of England, have other chances of earning a living under its tempered climate. Land can be bought for a trifle, in many parts well adapted to the growth of cereals and vegetables. Barring

rinderpest and other sickness, cattle of all kinds, sheep, goats, and pigs, also poultry, thrive on the high downs, especially in Matabeleland, where the grass was kept down by numerous herds, while among the poor Mashonas, who had much ado to guard their lives, not to say their stock, from those raiding neighbours, it oftener ran to unwholesome rankness. There is a fair supply of rain, which by careful irrigation can be eked out to last through the year in ordinary seasons. In some damper parts rice grows well, in others excellent tobacco. Maize seems to be the chief native grain, as in many regions of Africa, and the millet known to us as "Kaffir corn" will grow a dozen feet high or more. Sweet-potatoes, beans, rice, and ground-nuts are cultivated by the natives. Lemons grow wild, probably introduced by Portuguese settlers. Experiments are being made in the acclimatization of European crops and fruits, some of which appear to thrive here, as well as such African forms of vegetation as the coarse Kaffir orange, cucumbers with thorns growing outside them, blades of grass that can be used as needles, a tree whose fruit hangs like huge sausages, with other freaks of nature as they seem to our eyes. There is a useful timber that here takes the name of teak, another wood that has the valuable property of resisting white ants' perforations; and a sprinkling of big trees, like the mahobohobo, the machabel, and the unwieldy baobab that has its southern limit in this latitude. Palms appear more thickly in the north towards the hot Zambesi valley. Still, thorny plants are the most common, notably that one whose hooks have given it the expressive name of "Wait-a-bit", too truly emblematic of the difficulties encountered here by colonists in their haste to be rich.

On the eastern side of Mashonaland the Manica plateau is believed to be rich in gold as well as healthy for white men, and the possession of this desirable region made a dispute between Britain and Portugal, but it was divided between them by arbitration in 1895. By Umtali, the young capital of the English portion, runs a railway from Salisbury, boldly zigzagging from the edge of the plateau down into Portuguese territory; then, through the forest fly-belt, comes by the course of the Pungwe River to Beira at its mouth. This new port, as yet a small place built of corrugated iron on the sandy shore, begins to grow apace as the nearest approach to Rhodesia, foreign enterprise putting some life into the mediæval administration of Portugal. A wharf has been provided by the Chartered Company; the mainly French Mozambique Company has its head-quarters here; and there are offices of other foreign companies, as well as a swarm of gold prospectors coming and going in the new hotels; so Beira bids fair to rival the older Lorenzo Marquez, as yet the chief port of the province. A little to the south of Beira the abandoned haven Sofala has a legendary association with Solomon's riches and the Queen of Sheba, whose name has christened the Sabi, the chief river flowing down from Matabeleland.

The coast-belt here, forming the southern province of Mozambique, is known as Gazaland, a long stretch of hot, dry, and unhealthy country, with a background of wooded mountains sloping down to plains of brush and savannah, and withering up into sand-hills on the shores, except where the Sabi and other rivers form a delta of marshes and mangrove swamps. The most prominent feature of this half-desert coast is Cape Corrientes, named from the warm Mozambique current that runs strongly southward between it and Madagascar. In the Channel, and off the mainland, lie coral-founded islands about which pearl oysters are fished up. Till lately the interior has been left much alone by the Portuguese, arena for constant

feuds of its Kaffir natives, who in the last century, like the Mashona people, were sorely oppressed by a Zulu conquest, and are believed to have been reduced to about half a million, a thin population among which lions, leopards, elephants, and other beasts have thriven on the weakness of man. Gungunhaya was the Lobengula of Gazaland, defeated and captured by a spurt of the old Lusitanian energy. Partly by force of arms, and partly by missionary influences, the tribes are now reduced to submission, and their little-known country is being opened up through the keen search for gold, long barred out by the domination of that Zulu body whom the Portuguese call Landins. The most important town is

Photo. J. E. Middlebrook, Durban

Zulus in Holiday Dress—Snuffing

Lorenzo Marquez, on the wide sweep of Delagoa Bay at the south end, where the mouth of the English River makes the best harbour in South Africa. Built mainly on an unhealthy plain, but with a more airy quarter for villas, this place has grown fast as the port of the Transvaal, from whose frontier it is separated only by some 50 miles of plain, across which, by British enterprise, a railway has been made to the interior plateaux and on to Pretoria. At one time Britain might have had Delagoa Bay cheap; now international jealousy backs Portuguese pride to hinder a sale; but both English and French are much spoken in this town of 6000 or 7000 people. The white population of the whole colony is under 15,000.

Beyond the Portuguese frontier, within the eastern side of the Transvaal, the mountainous Swaziland is given up to its own people, under a resident British Commissioner, as are the flats of Tongaland upon the Anglo-Portuguese boundary to the south, where the St. Lucia lagoon separates them from Zululand in the northern part of Natal. The Zulu warriors, whose name comes from a

chief round whom they originally gathered to strength, do not much differ from other Kaffirs, unless in the curious clicks which their language seems to have adopted from the Hottentot, and in the remarkable military organization that steeled them to play such a formidable part in the history of South Africa. This organization is understood to be due to the chief Dingiswayo, who had an opportunity of observing the advantages of European military discipline when exiled for some years to Cape Colony at the end of the eighteenth century. His successor, Chaka, was the black Napoleon that carried out the system so thoroughly as to turn his country into a camp and the nation into an army garrisoning its fortified kraals. Every man and boy was taught to look on fighting as the business of a Spartan life devoted to the will of the king, whose every order must be obeyed at any risk. No one might marry till he had taken his degrees in slaughter, and earned the badge of being allowed to wear his hair twisted and waxed into hard curls, wondrously decked out with quills, bones, and other trumpery, round a ring of hard earth that still crowns Zulu heads as mark of manhood. Under their *induna* colonels, the young men were enrolled in regiments called *impis*, distinguished by shields of different colours, and by their appalling plumes of ostrich-feathers. Inspired by martial pride and a religion of congenial bloodshed, these troops were always ready to march at a word; and their blind obedience made them a terror to feeble tribes, who all around could never feel safe from their raids. They practised an effective manœuvre in which the enemy was enveloped by the extended wings, or rather horns, of a Zulu army; most often they needed no tactics but those of surprise and massacre. An impi would move to the attack not less stealthily than the beasts of prey whose voices the warriors imitated as signals to each other in the darkness. The first warning the devoted village had would be the war-cry of the dreaded Zulus as they leaped forward upon their victims, who, surprised and surrounded by such foes, might well fail for that "two o'clock in the morning" courage which Napoleon pronounced so rare. One by one they fell, butchered, amid a horrid din, each slaughterer raising a fresh shriek of triumph as he tore out the heart of the dying foe, speared by his assegai. When the killing was over they would drive together the cattle, as well as the boys and girls whom they had made orphans, and with these trophies return to feast and dance over their victory. The captives were adopted into the conquering body, whose ranks became thus recruited by lads easily trained to the same ruthless discipline; and the vast herds of cattle accumulated by plunder enabled the king to support his meat-fed army, which at one time appears to have numbered 100,000. So cheap was human life in this state that children were often killed by way of destroying family ties, hundreds of men would be marched to death for a whim of their tyrant, and unsuccessful warriors came back to almost certain execution. Baffled commanders, who durst not return without spoils of victory, sometimes led off their warriors to form independent centres of slaughter, subjugation, and absorption: such seems to have been the origin of the Matabele and other Zulu dominations we have seen established as far as Lake Nyassa. Then the Zulus were always apt to fall to fighting among themselves, by way of keeping their hands in when no other enemy could be found; and civil war led to a certain disintegration, but for which they might have overrun all South Africa.

Under Chaka's successor, Dingaan, the Zulus came into collision with Boers

trekking northward into Natal, and the final defeat of this chief makes still a notable anniversary of the Transvaal. Half a century later came the great war with the British, whose most stirring incidents, the defeat of Isandula, the gallant defence of Rorke's Drift, the death of the unfortunate Prince Imperial, are not yet forgotten. In the end, disciplined valour won its usual victory; the defeated Zulus split up, and their king, Cetewayo, after serving as a gaping-stock for England, owed his incomplete restoration to our authority.

The Zulus, now gathered in a reservation of about 10,000 square miles at the north end of Natal, and scattered in a dependent condition over this colony, are naturally a fine, handsome race, with the proud bearing of conquerors and an intelligence shown in the working of steel and copper, merry and sociable in their manners too, as one might not expect of people with such a grim history. They seem not ill-disposed towards their conquerors, and are settling down to peaceful occupations on their own account, though less ready to work steadily for a white master. But if they do not make haste to forget those old orgies of slaughter and the wild war-dances in which, decked out with horns and tails of oxen, they leaped, screamed, and brandished their deadly assegais, the numbers of this people might make them dangerous neighbours for a young colony, as shown by a recent partial rising that, however, was put down without much loss by the forces of Natal. to which Zululand is annexed.

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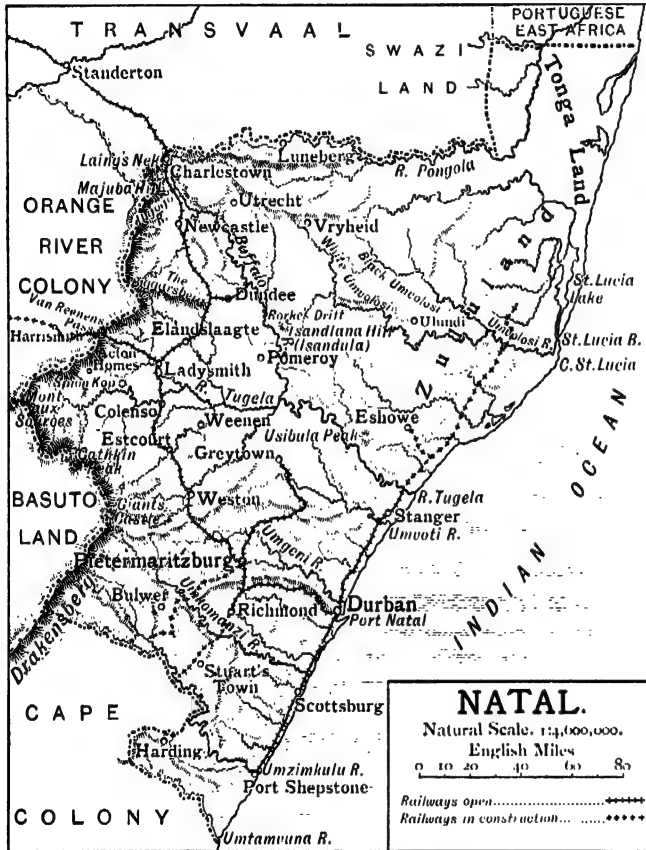
## NATAL

The Zulus have led us into the Colony of Natal, that got its name through being sighted by Vasco da Gama on Christmas-day, 1497. For over three hundred years it was little more than a name to white men; then in 1824 a handful of Englishmen landed on the coast, where they found a prolific wilderness of forests and pastures depopulated by Zulu raids. After English settlers had begun to spread out into the interior, Dutch emigrants entered the upper part by the passes leading from the Transvaal and sought to found a republic of their own. Both white peoples had their troubles with the fierce natives, as we have seen. Their own disputes came to be settled upon the principle of the lion's share, but the English colonists can recall such stirring incidents as "King's ride", when that brave fellow galloped seven hundred miles through wild hostile country to summon help from Grahamstown, then nearest neighbour of the young settlement attacked by its Dutch rivals. In the end the Dutch here seem to have taken more kindly than elsewhere to British domination.

Natal is indeed worth fighting about, as, on the slope from the high Drakenberg (or Drakensberg) Mountains to that local Gulf-stream the Mozambique Channel, it has a warmer and moister climate than the inland plateaux, giving it such richness of vegetation that it may well call itself "The Garden Colony", while its neighbours nickname it the "Colony of Samples", in allusion to an envied variety of productions. This country, making an area of 26,000 or 27,000 square miles, rises from the sea in terraces, with different climate and vegetation on each successive level. The low-lying coast-lands are green with palms, bamboos, mangrove-trees, and such tropical productions as coffee, sugar,

arrow-root, rice, cotton, hemp, tobacco, ginger, bananas, and pine-apples. Going inland we mount to a higher region, where the climate is temperate and the crops are more like those of English farms. Higher still, under the mountains, corn grows only in the sheltered valleys, but the "up-country" plains and slopes make good grazing-grounds for sheep and cattle. To the small but big-horned native cattle the colonists have added better breeds, and wool-bearing sheep to the hairy, fat-tailed flocks of Africa, also the Angora goat with its long, silky wool.

The principal crop, as in most parts of South Africa, is the maize, whose heads, here known as "mealies", make food for man and beast. The growth of tea has been successfully introduced, among other experiments, so that, with its coffee and sugar, the colony should have its own free breakfast-table. Australian wattle-bark is cultivated and exported, and the fibre of grass and aloes has been turned to industrial account. The mountains contain iron and coal lying close to the surface; lead mixed with silver has been found; Natal saltpetre is of the first quality; and persevering prospectors hope to find gold in paying quantity. With so many strings to its bow, Natal has had a prosperous career, checked for a moment by the war that suspended several of its industries, but only enhanced its enduring loyalty to the mother land. It is a self-governing colony, with a Legislative Assembly of popular election, and a Legislative Council chosen by the governor, who represents the Crown. Law is administered on the Roman-Dutch model, with a special code applicable to natives.

The heaviest cloud on Natal's prospects is the labour question. In the richest semi-tropical belt white men cannot, and natives will not, work with profitable energy. To meet this difficulty, docile and cheaply-fed Hindoo coolies have been imported, and they are accompanied by Hindoo traders, both classes finding themselves so well off here that they seldom care to go back to a land that has too many mouths to feed, from one that has not enough hands to cultivate it. These Indian subjects appear to be at present slightly more numerous than the European population of nearly 100,000, while the

trading class of them have too much wealth and business in their hands to please the ruling race; and the mild Hindoo begins to be looked on askance here, as the Chinaman in America and Australia. The natives, too, go on increasing fast under peaceful conditions. In a country that has still plenty of room for their herds there are some 800,000 of them, apparently reconciled to their present lot; but a remote Natalian settler's nightmare, when his liver is out of order, takes the form of a Zulu mutiny, in which his Indian labourers would give little help as defenders. His comfort is that dusky citizens in general are now barred from voting; and all should go well if only the Kaffir would work

From a stereograph by Underwood & Underwood

Town Hall, Durban

regularly in his plantations and factories. There is a strong Scottish element among the colonists, who include some Germans and a considerable Norwegian community, with a mixture of Malays, Chinese, and Creoles from the islands of the Indian Ocean, making in all a motley million or so.

Another drawback is the natural want of harbours and of navigable watercourses. Except for the mouths of rapid rivers there is only one port to speak of, Durban, named from a former governor; and this, after enormous sums have been spent on it, remains an unsatisfactory one, since the entrance to its great inner basin, in spite of constant dredging, is so hindered by a sand-bar that great steamers cannot always get across it. In rough weather passengers may have to be swung in a crate, like cattle, on to the deck of the tender that puts them on shore. Once landed, the stranger is struck by the rickshaws, that play the part of cabs, with lively Zulus harnessed to them, prancing and pawing in childlike

imitation of horses. Not that cabs, tram-cars, and smart private carriages are wanting in a city of nearly 80,000 people, white, black, and brown, its broad streets and handsome public buildings, set in rich greenery, rising to the Berea, a "west end" whose villa gardens and lawns make a lordly park along the heights above the town, with beautiful views over the harbour and its islets, enclosed by the long wooded headland called the Bluff. "The whole place", found Canon Knox Little, "has a healthy English air about it," though soon one comes upon a gorgeous Indian Bania driving in his costly equipage, and black monkeys gambolling among the trees, and unfamiliar sugar-cane plantations in the green outskirts that, rising to a sea of grass land above, form a miniature of the whole country, dotted with remnants of the forest in which elephants, lions, and buffaloes could be hunted within living memory.

Durban, or Port Natal as the harbour was christened, is the nucleus from which British settlement spread over the colony, and remains its largest town. The capital, however, is Maritzburg—in full, Pieter-Maritzburg, from the names of two Dutch pioneers,—situated some 50 miles inland, over 2000 feet above the sea, reached by rail through a picturesque fruit and farm country. This also is a pretty and prosperous-looking town, with banks, breweries, tanneries, and other signs of industry, as well as the government and municipal buildings that mark its rank. It stands among hilly environs, in sight of a table-shaped mountain 6000 feet high, and within reach of the celebrated Howick Falls of the Umgeni River, which here dashes down more than 300 feet. The country about Maritzburg reminds English visitors of Devonshire, under a sky which, like that country's, often plies the watering-pot, their rainfall being about equal. The wettest season here comes in our spring, not in autumn as beyond the Drakenberg, so that Natal shows its greenest face when the Cape Colony is at its brownest and barest.

On the west side Natal rises to the highest ridge of South Africa in the great Drakenberg mountain wall, where Cathkin or Champagne Castle appears to be about 11,000 feet high. Hardly lower are Mont aux Sources to the north, and to the south Giant's Castle, so called from the mass of rocky ruin on its summit; while it seems possible that another point may prove higher than any of these. The magnificent scenery of this range is not yet fully surveyed, but it is known to abound in peaks, passes, cliffs, gorges, cascades, forests, and caves that one day will make it as famous a touring-ground as the Alps of Switzerland or the Rockies of America. Those who have seen it declare there can be no grander prospect than that over the broad dry plains of the Orange and Transvaal country beyond, themselves so high that on that side the mountains lose half their real grandeur. Yet not less astounding must be the backward view over Natal, "an extended vista of ridges, conical hills, flat-topped mountains, cup-shaped valleys, gleaming rivers, and endless breadths of grassy sward, darkened here and there by the more sombre tints of bush and forest." After widening out in the lofty loops and spurs of Basutoland, under other names, the Quathlamba, the Stormberg, this range runs far to the south of Natal, then sweeps round westward into Cape Colony. Besides being the barrier that cuts off from the interior plains their fair share of rain, it is the parting between the longer rivers of the Atlantic and the torrents that rush to the Indian Ocean over the steep terraces of Natal, forming so many rapids and cascades as striking features of its scenery.

Chief among these many streams is the Tugela, that spouts into the colony

over a stupendous cliff of 1800 feet, to run for 200 miles through a central valley, its upper course shut in by wild hills, whose uncouth names sprang to sudden note at the end of the century. Let us go on through the country by the railway from Durban to the Transvaal, which with its branches makes a more important line than any of the unbusiness-like rivers whose course it transects on its way north from Maritzburg. It crosses the Tugela at Colenso, before which General Buller's army so long stood helpless to relieve Ladysmith, a few hours' march farther north. Colenso gets its name from the arithmetical Bishop of Natal, who made such a stir in England forty years ago by criticisms on the Pentateuch, now taken more quietly. Ladysmith had as godmother the wife of Sir Harry

Photo, N. P. Edwards

A View of the Tugela River, Natal: a Kaffir Kraal in the Foreground

Smith, one of the most successful of our South African pro-consuls, whose own name appears in Harrismith over the Orange State border. At Ladysmith, which ranked as the third town in the colony before its trying experiences, the railway forks, a branch crossing the Drakenberg into the Orange country, while the main line holds on northwards, by the east side of that mountain wall and its lofty gaps, crossing the transverse range called the Biggarsberg. At Glencoe Junction a short branch goes off on the right to the coal-mines of Dundee, and we are now among the opening scenes of the great war. Farther north, where the colony tapers to a point between its neighbour states, the name of Newcastle befits another capital of its coal-fields; and a woollen manufacture also hopes to rival the Tweed. By bold zigzags the rail climbs to a height of over 5000 feet, at which it pierces the Drakenberg by the tunnel under Laing's Nek, beside that unblessed Majuba Hill with its soldiers' graves, in which, let us trust, are now buried such hot heart-burnings. Nek denotes a pass, and Majuba, properly

Amajuba, meaning "place of doves", would tower far above any British mountain. Charlestown is the frontier station, beyond which, across the Buffalo, principal affluent of the Tugela, we enter the Transvaal. Here, a south-eastern strip of the ex-republican territory has been thrown into Natal as indemnification for its patient endurance under the trials of the great war.

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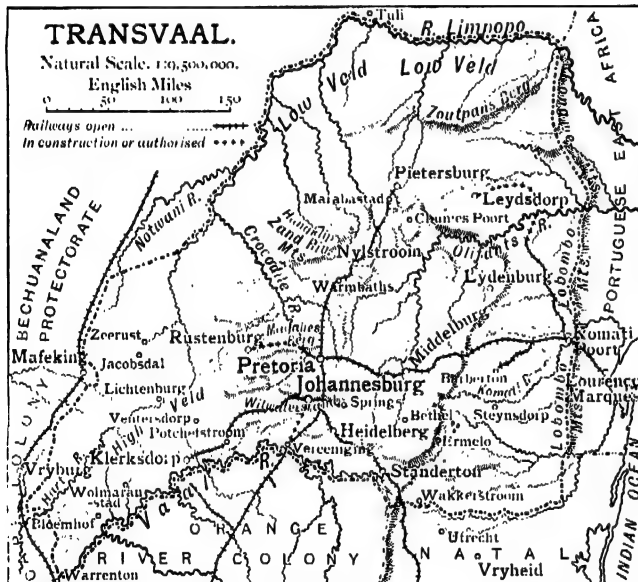
## THE TRANSVAAL AND ORANGE LANDS

The Boer Lands, that at the end of our Victorian age came into such unhappy prominence, are enclosed north and south between the Limpopo and the Orange, the two chief rivers of South Africa. The Limpopo or Crocodile River rises in the heart of the Transvaal, to flow nearly 1000 miles in a semicircle, embracing the north side of this country on its middle course, then breaking through the eastern mountains to turn south in the Lorenzo Marquez province, where it receives its chief tributary, the Lipalule or Olifants (*Elephants*) River, that has its source in the same central region as have other right-bank affluents, one of which the Boers named Nylstroom, fancying they had here come upon the sources of the Nile. On the left side it takes in streams draining from the Matabeleland

heights. The Orange River, so named in honour of a house that has figured in English as well as in Dutch history, comes from the west slope of the Drakenberg range, rising below Cathkin to pour down through highlands styled the Switzerland of South Africa, otherwise Basutoland, home of a fine race of Kaffirs, whose great chief, Moshesh, was long a thorn in the side of his neighbours; but, after stoutly defending their mountain fastnesses against both Zulus and white men, they now show a remarkable capacity for education and industrial pursuits under a peaceful British administration. This composite people, indeed, numbering over 200,000, seems one of the most promising of the African races; and their grand mountain country, with an agreeable climate, gives them fields and pastures which they already turn to good use. A northern tributary, the Caledon, bounds one side of Basutoland; then, farther down, the more important Vaal affluent, coming from the north of the same range, for part of its course divides the Orange country from the Transvaal, as is implied by the latter name. Beyond their confluence the Orange must give rather than receive. On the lower part of its 1300-mile course nearly right across the continent it has no

perennial tributaries, but in the thirsty deserts of Bechuanaland and Namaland loses much of its volume, fitfully flooded by water-courses that for most of the year cannot make their way to its stream. Finally, it reaches the sea in an exhausted state, so as to be unnavigable even were its mouth not blocked by surf and sand, and its channel by rapids, half-drowned in the rainy season. Partly intermittent are even its great falls on the south side of the Kalahari Desert, where, spread into branching arms, in 16 miles it makes a hundred spouts and rushes among cliffs, towers, and gorges of granite carved and worn by the fretting waters which a few hours' rain swells to stupendous cataracts, the largest pouring into a chasm deeper than Niagara's.

It is the upper part of this river that bounds the Boer Lands, whose independence we have seen staked and lost upon the cast of war.[1] The general character

[1] Unless incidentally, such a book as this has no historical duty, and might well shirk the long story of quarrel, mistake, and misunderstanding ended, let us trust, by the late war. But the rivalry of two kindred people has played such a part in the development of the South African colonies that it seems well concisely to outline that century-long dispute as to which so much may be said on both sides. The Dutch, with an infusion of French blood, were originally in possession of the Cape, where their management was rather a failure. The British and the French had each an eye upon this possession, which, during the Napoleonic war, fell into Britain's hands by force, confirmed at the peace by treaty. Unfortunately, the new settlers and the old ones did not readily amalgamate. Englishmen seldom are distinguished by consideration for ways not their own; and in this case much mischief has all along been done by the carelessness, ignorance, and fickleness of our home government, which with occasional inept interference allowed so many dependencies to drift into prosperity or ruin. The two races were on different planes of civilization. The Dutch settlers, their morality largely inspired by the Old Testament, treated as Canaanites, not to say Gibeonites, the natives whom English philanthropy was moved to embrace, at a distance, as men and brethren. The abolition of slavery and what seemed the inadequate compensation paid to Cape slave-holders, was chief among various grievances rousing the Dutchmen to a desperate exodus. Large numbers of them emigrated to the north, where, beyond the Orange and the Vaal Rivers, they hoped to secure room and independence. The separate and sometimes wrangling communities they founded there, still interfered with by Britain, in the middle of the century took shape as two considerable states, which we were willing to let alone so long as these remote territories appeared of no value to us. But we looked askance on their attempts at expansion, and made a point of cutting them off from the sea, while our territories went on growing till the Boer States became islanded in the British sphere.

The Orange Free State was happy in having a quieter history of its own, up to the war into which it rashly plunged. The larger Transvaal Republic had a more chequered career. It fell into such a bankrupt and factious plight, imperilled, too, by hostile natives, that many of the people wished to come back under British government. For its own good, as seemed, the Transvaal was annexed in 1877. But our officials had not duly estimated the Boer love of independence, shown by a revolt three years later. As usual, we were not prepared to crush this outbreak that gathered head through successful skirmishes, in which the Boers had the advantage of their knowledge of the country and their skill as hunters; then came the crowning disaster of the surprise on Majuba Hill. These petty reverses might have been avenged; but Mr. Gladstone judged Britain strong enough to forbear putting forth her might, and recognized what seemed a mistake by restoring the independence of the Transvaal, or South African Republic, limited only by a British control of its external policy. This generosity was quite thrown away on the Boers, who imagined us to stand in fear of them; and their airs of insolent triumph did not help to heal our wounded pride, while many of the Dutch in our own colonies conceived a sympathetic aspiration after a great Afrikander republic, whose flag should not be the Union Jack, an aspiration shared indeed by some colonists of British blood.

These feelings might have been lived down but for the discovery of the Transvaal's gold, which has cost both peoples so dear. The best friends of the Boers must admit them to be a slow, ignorant, old-fashioned folk, who care little to develop the resources of the country, content to live on their roomy farms, after the simple ways of their forefathers, earning a coarse living, with plenty of game to shoot and natives to hector. But the gold-mines brought them more pushing and stirring neighbours, many of whom were a good riddance to their own peoples. These invaders, "Outlanders" as they were called, included greedy speculators and unscrupulous adventurers from every nation in Europe, but most of them were British and American subjects, who did not take kindly to the dependent position in which they found themselves. For, while in a few years they came to outnumber the Dutch inhabitants, and their chief town, Johannesburg, rapidly grew the largest in the country, they were allowed no standing as citizens, not even the management of their own municipal affairs, only the privilege of heavy taxation to support a clumsy and corrupt government, whose revenues their enterprise increased a hundredfold. On the other hand, the Boers found it hard to be swamped by uncongenial foreigners whom they had not invited as fellow-citizens, and were not far wrong in their contention that most of these strangers had no interest in the country except a desire of getting enough gain out of it to go back to Europe as soon as possible. To balance the British influence that naturally took a lead among the Outlander element, the Transvaal rulers had the idea of introducing and patronizing native Dutchmen, "Hollanders", who did not help to spread oil on the troubled waters, and were by no means welcome to the Boer population. Before the war began, not a few Boers had "trekked" away from the Transvaal in disgust with their own Government.

It was a case for patience, statesmanship, and forbearance on either side. In time resentment might have died out through intermarriages, through better understanding, through enlightenment of the stolid Boers. Unfortunately their leader was a cunning and obstinate fanatic, who too well represented the narrow-mindedness of the people, but who

of the region is high dry plains, seamed by ridges and dotted by the granite knobs our soldiers learned to know as forming natural fastnesses for their wary adversaries. Three distinct zones, however, may be roughly traced. The north of the Transvaal, bordering on Rhodesia, is the "Broken Veldt", a land rather of mountains, torrents, and forests, where the elephant, the hippopotamus, and the crocodile may still be found among the semi-tropical vegetation of the Limpopo and its tributaries. The central district is known as the Bush Veldt, where flourish thickets of mimosas, acacias, and euphorbias on a fairly well-watered soil that gives winter pasturage to herds driven down from the drier High Veldt, making the southern part of the Transvaal and nearly the whole of the Orange country. These lofty plateaux are covered by tall grass that in turn resembles green and ripened corn-fields, then shows a black stubble when burned off in its parched decay, as is the Boer way of fertilizing the ground. Agriculture is possible in many parts, where nearly all the crops and fruits of Europe thrive; but the typical Boer (peasant-farmer) was a herdsman, and the wool and hides of

sooner or later must have lost the power he abused. Kruger's British opponents were as rash as he was *slim*, and played into his hands so as to fit a somewhat homely figure with an aureole of popular heroism. In 1895 came the startling Jameson raid, so loudly applauded by our music-hall patriots; but this crime against international law has been confessed by Dr. Jameson himself to have been a blunder, naturally exasperating the Boers while showing the Johannesburg people not over ready to strike a blow for their freedom. It is a much-vexed question whether Kruger's preparations for war were begun before or after the Raid. This at all events gave his Government an excellent excuse for pushing them on with the abundant funds produced by taxes and exactions on the enterprise he professed to despise. In the course of the next few years he had accumulated a store of artillery and ammunition, besides enlisting foreign soldiers of fortune to steel his inexperienced army. When the British Government, driven by force of largely artificial public opinion, interfered to demand rights of citizenship for the Outlanders, the Transvaal president first tried all the resources of shilly-shallying diplomacy, and finally, when he found our Government in earnest, presented an ultimatum which meant war, begun in the autumn of 1899. The Orange Free State, with which we had no quarrel, chivalrously threw in its lot with the Transvaal in what was felt to be a struggle for British or Dutch supremacy in South Africa; then, as at a football match, the British public cheerfully prepared itself to look on through its newspaper spectacles. Our press, of course, prophesied ready victory, as to which soldiers who knew the country shook their heads: had the decision been in the hands of soldiers on both sides there would probably have been no war. Before long our national self-complacency was ruffled by finding that the Boers did not allow themselves to be speedily beaten, while they were encouraged by some first successes and by hopes of succour from the Continent, where jealousy of English colonial power was blown up by a more generous warmth of feeling towards a small people struggling for its freedom, a sympathy, indeed, that sat ill enough on the oppressors of Poland and Finland. The Continental press loudly announced our downfall, and exaggerated our disasters. Public feeling at home became less boastful but more resolute. Men, horses, and material were poured into the Cape, not only from Britain but from our loyal colonies; and a most hopeful feature was the devotion with which men of all classes, "duke's son, cook's son", came forward to serve as volunteers at the front. Lord Roberts took command of widely-combined operations, in which overwhelming odds of numbers and discipline soon began to tell against the difficulties of long marches into an easily-defended country, with a more than half-hostile Dutch population in our rear. The enemy's successes were but transitory; the Boers showed themselves better at defence than at attack; and their incoherent organization hindered them from following up any advantage. The British soldier kept his heart and his temper, and came out of the ordeal better than did all his leaders. Lord Roberts swept the country to the capitals of the two States. Our hard-pressed outlying garrisons were relieved by gallant efforts that once more raised feeling in England to a too cock-a-hoop pitch. The president of the Transvaal fled to Europe, where he soon found how idle was all that noisy sympathy with his cause. Disappointed of aid, he or his agents spent the gold of Transvaal in keeping up a campaign of newspaper lies that long helped to blind the Continent. By such underhand devices, and by the perverse fanaticism of some infatuated Englishmen, the belief was manufactured that we carried on the war with savage cruelty, the truth being that by the soldiers on both sides, with occasional exceptions, a spirit of humanity, sometimes even of chivalry, was shown. A painful feature, judged necessary by the military authorities, and justified by the stern laws of war, was the burning of farms that made rallying-points for the enemy. The concentration camps, in which we supported thousands of his women and children, engendered a sad mortality for which we were unfairly blamed. At any time we might have cast fearful odds against the Boers by letting loose the natives, who had little cause to love them; but both sides honourably observed an understanding that the quarrel should be fought out between white men. The losses of the Boers, both in life and property, were ruinous. On our side, in round numbers, nearly 450,000 men were engaged, of whom some 22,000 died in action, from wounds, or of the enteric fever and other diseases that were more deadly than bullets.

After a year's fighting, Lord Roberts had proclaimed the annexation of the Republics, under the belief that they were practically subdued. But the dogged spirit of the Boer patriots kept up a guerrilla warfare which for long tried all our resources. Not till May, 1902, did the broken and exhausted bands finally surrender to Lord Kitchener, on no dishonourable terms. We have still before us a task of pacification and reconciliation after that costly war, in which, so much bad blood having been let out, the two peoples may have at least learned to respect each other as foemen worthy of their steel and friends worth such a price. In this hope, a conquered race is so soon trusted with self-government.

his stock made his chief wealth even after the discovery of coal and gold, which he left to be exploited by Outlanders. His chief trouble, next to chronic droughts, has been losses by epidemics, notably, in recent years, the rinderpest that slew his cattle faster than in the last two generations he has killed or driven off the zebras and antelopes once to be found on the open veldt in tens of thousands.

The Transvaal country is more than half the size of France, with a population before the war of under a quarter of a million white men among three times as many natives. The Boer likes plenty of room; his legal lot in the land was some 6000 acres, not always closely marked by the bounds of his nearest neighbour. His aristocracy were the Landrosts and Veldt Cornets, who looked after a rough

The Drift, Skinner Street, Pretoria

Photo. R. C. E. Nissen, Pretoria

administration of law that did not much clog a half-savage freedom, unless when the burgher was commandeered on service against Kaffir or British enemies. In his dirty home he enjoyed coarse plenty, bringing up a numerous family in the fear of the Lord and of the sjambok. His society was chiefly confined to hunting-parties and visits from passing travellers; but four times a year, at the church of a parish measured by many leagues, he and his gathered to a sort of "holy fair", for which excuse was given by the administration of the sacrament according to the rites of his Dopper Calvinism. He was shy of towns, unless for occasional errands of business. Englishmen, Hollanders, and other foreigners for a great part inhabited the few and scattered townlets that sometimes, under names meaning "Strife", "Murder", "Sorrows" or "Tears", stand as monuments of a troubled early history, while not a few of these outlandish words are now too familiar by their sorrowful memories for English homes. One district of lakes and mountains in the south-east corner had originally the name of "New

Scotland" from its early colonists; one town was suggestively called "Macmac"; and not a few born Britons had to bear arms against their mother-land in the war. But the mass of the population were Dutch in descent and sympathies, speaking the corrupt Dutch dialect called the Taal, full of dissensions among themselves, while united in suspicion and dislike of British domination.

The Transvaal capital was at one time Potchefstroom, on its south border, till the seat of government was removed to the more central Pretoria, so named from Pretorius, hero of the early struggle for independence. Lying in a plain among green hills and remnants of forest still showing some enormous old trees, this has been called the "prettiest of the South African towns, with its red and white houses, its tall clumps of trees and pink lines of blooming rose-hedges". Even after having added the dignity of imposing parliamentary buildings and fortifications to its semi-rustic features, it remained interspersed with gardens, and with avenues of the eucalyptus that grow so fast on this foreign soil, or of the weeping-willow that makes such a pleasing show wherever, as at Pretoria, there are streams of running water.

Not long before the war Pretoria had over 10,000 inhabitants, hardly one-tenth of the number that had already gathered about its mushroom neighbour Johannesburg, some thirty miles to the south-west; and Pretoria, too, was beginning to increase apace. A quarter of a century ago came the first news of gold in the Transvaal, which for a time did not promise much success. The first rush of gold-seekers was to Barberton, near the mountainous eastern frontier, and here and elsewhere in the Transvaal gold is still worked; but the richest known gold-mines were discovered, 1885, on the Witwatersrand (White Waters Ridge), commonly known as "the Rand" among a population who have no time to spare for long words, unless on prospectuses designed to tempt the distant investor. Along this ridge the auriferous bed is believed to be 130 miles long by 30 miles broad, the "Main Reef" extending for more than a dozen miles on either side of Johannesburg, while Heidelberg is centre of the less-productive eastern end. The gold occurs in "banket" reefs of conglomerate pebbles, a peculiar formation, where the deposits are not specially rich, but more regularly distributed and more easily reached than in the commoner case of quartz rock, so yield a surer return when treated by means of expensive machinery and elaborate chemical processes that require science and capital. The population of Johannesburg, then, was soon swollen by actual and would-be millionaires, by experts, engineers, and skilled workmen seeking employment, by a jackal train of speculators, scoundrels, and ministers to vice, pleasure, and excitement, and by gangs of natives enlisting for uncongenial labour, a few months of which sent them home with a stock of absurd clothes and other coveted possessions, and money enough in hand, even after the cheating of white dealers, to buy a wife, cattle, in short all the luxuries of their life. From as far off as the Zambesi, Kaffirs were attracted by such hopeful prospects; but the employers, enriched by their toil, grumbled sorely over the tempting rate of wages, for which some would like to substitute a kind of slavery that might sooner lay the foundation of Park Lane mansions.

Recent visitors to this exotic city describe it as growing more solidly English in its character, and less cosmopolitan than in early days when satire gave it such nicknames as "The New Jerusalem" or "Johannesburg the Golden". It stands over the richest part of the reef, on a monotonous plain, 5000 feet at least above the sea, baked by the sun, swept by dusty winds, and with no advantage but

a clear and bracing atmosphere.[1] Already covering six square miles, with its regularly-laid-out but ill-paved streets, it is a hasty mixture of pretentious new structures, tin shanties of the first comers, and miserable native huts, above which rise tall chimneys, as yet such a rare sight in Africa. The bare country around, too, is broken by stacks, rubbish-heaps, and mine buildings of the galvanized iron so much used in a land ill off for timber and transport; then beneath this prosaic Aladdin's palace the ground is honeycombed by miles of underground tunnels, where electric light shows walls of dark rock and crumbling earth from which is extracted so much wealth. On this foundation have sprung up hotels, fine shops, clubs, theatres, athletic grounds, and places of unhealthy amusement called for by a life kept at fever-point of loss and gain. Even before its eclipse Johannesburg harboured harsh extremes of sottish misery and lavish luxury. Life was enormously expensive through the unproductiveness of the surrounding country,

In a Johannesburg Gold-Mine: the Stamp Batteries

[1] In *Side Lights on South Africa*, by Roy Devereux, we have this view over "the flat leagues of endless desert whereon the town has grown as between the morning and the evening of a day. Although the sky is a canopy of stainless blue, the prospect from the hill is obscured by that film of shifting dust which is to Johannesburg what the fog is to London—a veil that she would fain cast away, but cannot. Through its folds one receives the impression of something in the process of being unpacked. The rows of dwarfed houses are carelessly huddled together, like boxes in the custom-house of a Continental station. Here and there a pretentious pile of red brick rises irrelevantly from the middle or the corner of the crouching street; here and there a few world-weary mimosa-trees lift up clusters of soiled blossoms from a tangle of gray leaves that should be green. Eastward of that section of the town consecrated to commercial activity stretches the suburb of Doornfontein, powdered over with little red and white villas, unsubstantially pretty, tentatively elegant, bearing as regards architecture a fiftieth cousinship to Queen Anne. These are the homes of successful financiers who are still intent on working out their commercial salvation. Each house is encircled by that wide veranda which is one of the most characteristic features of African life. The *stoep* bears about the same relation to the Afrikander as his *café* does to the Frenchman. There he transacts his business and distracts his leisure; there he smokes, drinks, loves, and sometimes dies. Not even the jerriest builder would dream of dispensing with it, or the trail-looking iron roof that makes-believe to be tiles. Abruptly to the west of Johannesburg town lies the district called Burgersdorp and the farther portions of Bramfontein, squalid and hideous beyond words, where even the tired mimosas refuse to flourish and where the very dust changes its ruddy warmth of colour into a lifeless gray."

the high rates of transport, and the Boer policy of monopoly and taxation which filled the treasury of Pretoria and the pockets of corrupt officials. Meat, in a land of herds, and bread cost twice as much as in England; milk six times as much; rent was sevenfold higher; vegetables were hardly to be had; and groceries at their weight in gold ore. Since the war, prices have risen so high, and industry is so dislocated, that great suffering has been the experience of many who rushed up to the mines in search of work.

The mining of banket reefs gives a steady and calculable return, when carried out on a large scale by efficient labour and with the help of expensive machinery. Thus from the first the enterprise fell into the hands of capitalists and companies, that, on the spot, or from London, dominated the situation in a masterful manner, resented by the working class of white men, who for their part are here not too keen about manual work, certainly not at the same low wages as now cease to tempt the more enduring natives, to whom the European, in his pride, feels bound to play the part of a master rather than of a fellow-labourer. The sore question is, who shall do the actual grubbing, out of which so much money comes to its directors and promoters. When the end of the war did not bring back to Johannesburg such a rush of fortune as she had hoped, the mine-owners raised a bitter cry for cheap labour, finding themselves no longer able to enlist in sufficient numbers the sturdy Kaffirs, who had learned to put a higher price on their intermittent service. This difficulty came to be met by the introduction of a host of Chinese labourers, whose industry was more admirable than their morals. Their appearance on the scene raised hot indignation among white working-men both at home and in other colonies; then the soft-hearted British public cried out alternately over the crimes of stray Chinamen, and the sharp punishments by which it was attempted to keep them in a restraint seeming hardly distinguishable from slavery. The government which carried through the war had shown favour to that alien importation, less kindly viewed by the succeeding ministry, which made haste to erect the Transvaal into a self-governing colony. The new authorities, as was expected, proved ready to concern themselves in getting rid of such an irritating foreign body, repatriating the Chinese as the Kanakas have been banished from Australia; then the Rand magnates may once more be at a loss for hands. If they are able to go on disembowelling the rich earth at profitable rates, a time must come, variously calculated at from fifty years upwards, when the mines of this range will be exhausted; and Johannesburg, that South African Babylon, that rose like a rocket, may as quickly fall to ruin, unless she have hit on firmer foundations than gold to bear up her prosperity. Perhaps the slower killing of the goose that lays her golden eggs may turn out true economy in the end. As it is, in the year after the war, she produced a trifle of some ten millions' worth of gold, and since then has increased this to over fifteen millions, a higher output than in those palmy days when she had Kruger to blame for all drawbacks. But gold, as we have seen, is found in other parts of the country, where already new mines are in blast to overpower with the deafening thud of their stamps that daily pounding of corn which is the most habitual sound in an African kraal.

Any day another Johannesburg may rise in some obscure quarter; and any account will soon be out of date that attempts to class or describe the smaller towns of the Transvaal, which for the most part extend along the railway lines or their branches, now stretching in three directions from Pretoria and Johannes-

Photo. N. P. Edwards, Littlehampton

Typical Boers

burg. Northwards a line goes by Nylstrom to Pietersburg, whence it is continued in the same direction by a road to Bulawayo; and other rough ways go off into the Zoutpansberg north-eastern corner, where the Drakenberg range falls to the Limpopo. Eastwards runs the Lorenzo Marques line by Middelburg and Belfast, threading the mountains between the gold reefs of Lydenberg and Barberton, to which latter place there is a branch, as one in progress to the former. A loop of the line is designed to make a shorter cut for Johannesburg without passing through Pretoria; and a branch is being pushed southward to a lofty windy country of lakes about the sources of the Vaal, among which its Scots settlers had scattered such names as Athole and Robburnia, but that memorial of a poet was changed to Amsterdam. South-eastward from Johannesburg, by Heidelberg and Standerton, is the course of the line into Natal, entering by the Laing's Nek tunnel of the Drakenberg, where to the east, about Utrecht and Vryheid, lies that strip of some 7000 square miles, shorn off from the Transvaal to make spoil of war for loyal Natal.

Gold is not the only talisman that may here call up an Aladdin city on some lonely nook. The Transvaal seems singularly endowed with a variety of minerals. To the east of Pretoria are already worked diamond mines that promise to equal those of Kimberley; while diamonds and sapphires have been turning up in other parts of the country. It is rich in coal beds; also, apparently, in iron, lead, copper, and other minerals which, in the long run, may prove more valuable than the gold that has cost it and Britain so dear. It is rich, too, in forests, and in rolling stretches of red and black soil, which invite the plough and the spade, now that the din of war has scared away their herds of swift game, and the lion's roar is no longer heard south of the Limpopo. As for other than agricultural and mining industries, it is too soon to speak. Before the war, there was a feeble development of manufacturing enterprise, unsoundly nursed by monopolies, of which the most notorious kept up the price of dynamite used in working the

mines. Perhaps the chief manufacture of the country had hitherto been bad spirits, too much consumed both by white and black men in Johannesburg; for the "simple piety" of which we hear so much did not prevent the Dutch from selling drink to the natives, a traffic restricted by law in the English colonies. Friendly foes have exerted themselves in teaching the conquered people such homely arts as knitting their wool into garments; and the impetus given to education under the new régime will go to waken up the unenterprising Rip van Winkles of the Transvaal.

The white population has increased to 300,000, of whom now a minority are of Dutch descent, while British immigration seems too much alloyed by an invasion of Jews from Eastern Europe, and other pushing foreigners. The Transvaal has been set up as a self-governing colony, starting in political life with a debt of £65,000,000, of which part indeed is chargeable upon her neighbour the Orange State. The constitution is on the usual model, an elected Lower and a nominated Upper House, which latter may after a time be turned into an elected one, as is the tendency in some of our colonies, where commonly the Governor's choice is controlled by his ministers. The first elections, held in February, 1907, put into power as prime minister General Botha, who a few years back led an army against our flag. What had been feared was a bitter antagonism of race, though the Boer leaders have declared themselves as frankly accepting their position as British subjects. What seems rather to have taken shape is a division between the interests of those working above and below ground, between the Rand and the Veldt, between Johannesburg and the country. The so-called Progressive party, a name with other associations to our ears, is that which stands for the domination of capital and British connections. In opposition to this is the Dutch farming body known as *Het Volk*, which at the first elections secured a majority increased by alliance with the Nationalist party that puts local patriotism above imperial interests. How far these and minor groups may hold together, go apart, or coalesce in fresh combinations, time will show. At present gold is the most disturbing element that here seems to earn the many hard things said of it by impecunious poets. For a forecast of the future, good or evil, we should do well to remember the words of a certain poet rich in shrewd experience, "Don't ever prophesy, unless ye know".

The Orange River Colony, whose name becomes abridged as Orangia, has in turn received its free constitution of nominated Upper Council and Legislative Assembly of thirty-eight members, elected by white manhood suffrage. Interests here are less conflicting than in the Transvaal, so that the country should have less difficulty in settling down. It is only one-third the size of its neighbour, 50,000 square miles, at a height of 4000 to 5000 feet, chiefly rolling grassy plains with woods and fields in the valleys or on the moister eastern side. Before the war it was thinly settled by fewer white men than there are in many an English town, its capital, Bloemfontein, a pretty and airy place of some thousands of people, including foreigners attracted by the climate of a high and pleasant site, which gave it the repute of a sanatorium for consumption, as Harrismith on the east side makes a bracing change of air to the Natal people in their hot summer. Most of the other towns are mere village centres of agricultural districts. The Boers here, thrifty and peaceful, were less ignorant and pig-headed than those of the Transvaal, English-speaking school teachers having been welcomed among them as well as preachers. A considerable intercourse and intermixture of nationalities

had been going on, when the dominant party was able to drag the little republic into the war that ruined its independence. This struggle could not but leave a soreness, which, however, seems in the way of healing sooner than racial antagonism in the Cape Colony, where feelings rankle more bitterly for being unrelieved by bloodletting. The discharged soldiers and other British settlers placed on the land by the Orange River administration, appear likely to get on fairly well with the Dutch colonists who stood against them in open battle, though it may be long before men are able to forget the past in this part of the country that suffered most from the devastation of war. Hostility of race is at least no more exasperated than ill-will between the Boers who submitted when the contest seemed hopeless, and those irreconcilable patriots, who, with a white button set in crape as their badge, took to skulking in the mountains rather than recognize the victory of hated conquerors. Many visitors insist upon indications that the conquered, as a rule, bear less grudge to us than to the foreign nations on whose support they had reckoned, but had to be content with deceptive sympathy. Friends or foes, the white population is now growing on to 150,000, and there is plenty of room for more, whose work may transform the land lying so airily open to improvement.

The country naturally falls into two divisions, parted by the main railway running through it, about which an intermediate zone merges the character of both. The western side is drier, so much so that agriculture hardly flourishes without irrigation, and stock farming has become the chief industry above empty river-beds, flushed by rain-storms that do not always come as they are wanted. On the eastern side, the vicinity of the mountains secures a much better rainfall, equal to that of many parts of England, and crops can here be grown with less anxiety. The richest part, where wheat does well, is a hilly strip under the Drakenberg, conquered from the Basutos, who might some day swarm out of their fastnesses in armed myriads, but Scots and other Britons have taken that risk by settling along the border, as their forefathers built block-houses and cleared farms close to the hunting-grounds of the Shawnee or the Choctaw. The Basuto warriors, indeed, are hopefully taking to farming for themselves among their rugged peaks. On the west side of the mountains, the government has been actively settling new-comers on farms of different sizes, sold or let at cheap terms; and all seems to bid fair for the prosperity of this region. It is opened up by branches from the main line to Ladybrand and Ficksburg; and other lines are in progress, such as one from Harrismith to Bethlehem, across the north-western corner, already reached by a railway from Natal. The lines of the Transvaal and Orangia are now amalgamated as the Central South African Railways.

The Orange lands are not without mineral wealth, gold and coal having been found, as well as diamonds, which for some time past have been profitably worked at Jagersfontein. Indeed the quiet state made a narrow escape from such troubles as shook her neighbour, when its own rough-grained Arcadianism was threatened, twenty years before the rise of Johannesburg, by the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West, claimed by the Boers as lying within the Orange frontier; but Britain arbitrarily settled a doubt by taking possession of this country, pensioning the drunken chief of its half-caste inhabitants with £1000 a year, and paying the Free State an indemnity of £90,000 for what, in fifteen years, yielded a return of forty-five millions of pounds. Griqualand West was afterwards annexed to the Cape Colony, from which it makes a projection across the Orange.

The story goes that in 1867 some children were found quarrelling over a pretty stone they had picked up by one of the Orange tributaries, which turned out worth hundreds of pounds. Two years later a Hottentot brought in the famous Star of South Africa diamond, which at first no one cared to buy, but the lucky man who gave £400 for it sold again for over £11,000 what is judged worth twice as much. A rush set in for Griqualand West, and in a year or two ten thousand adventurers were encamped on a dusty dreary plain where no one would care to live but for the sparkling bait that before the war had drawn together a population of tens of thousands, including specimens of the scum of Europe. Kimberley, as the town came to be called, and its *annexe* Beaconsfield, grew with the same rapidity as Johannesburg, on a rather smaller scale presenting similar contrasts of ambitious frontages with galvanized iron, barbed wire, and broken tins, used as building material by the Kaffirs, "as though a

From a stereograph by Underwood & Underwood

Meal-Time among the Mine Workers, Kimberley

respectable ironmonger's shop had gone mad, and its contents were holding wild saturnalia on the high veldt", among refuse-heaps, deserted shanties, and buildings tumbling to pieces. "The dust-bin of creation" is the epithet that occurred to another visitor. The country around, too, has been strangely cut up by the artificial cliffs and craters of the diamond mines, which during the now famous siege formed both refuges and fortifications. Till then the chief event in Kimberley's history had been the amalgamation of the rival diamond companies into the great De Beers' Corporation, of which the soul was Cecil Rhodes. This practical monopoly, by which output and prices were regulated, turned out in one way a blow to the town, its growth no longer inflated by the speculation and competition in which some shrewd knaves had made enormous fortunes; but the

De Beers despotism is said to have been exercised in some ways for the good of the place and of their employés, at one time numbering 13,000 men, white and black. Lying close to the Orange State frontier, Kimberley was soon attacked by the Boers, eager to capture not only the diamond mines, but their arch-enemy Rhodes, who had thrown himself into the place, where his presence and overpowering influence proved rather an embarrassment to the military commander, while the workshops, electric search-lights, and other apparatus of the Company played no small part in the defence, ending with a relief that might have come too late had the assailants been more enterprising.[1]

Kimberley lies on the edge of southern or British Bechuanaland, for administrative purposes annexed to the Cape Colony. This division reaches for more than 200 miles to the north, and on the eastern side are found three small towns of some note, Kuruman as early centre of missionary efforts in Bechuanaland, Vryburg and Mafeking as proposed capitals for two small republics which Boer adventurers set up here under the names of Stellaland and Goshen, but had to let their flag be replaced by the Union Jack. Mafeking, then a little gathering of mud and tin buildings at the corner where this province meets Rhodesia and the Transvaal, came into fame by a gallant defence and a thrilling relief in the war.

Both this and Vryburg are on the line to Bulawayo, a railway not called for by local traffic, for the country to the west of it is a dry veldt, watered by heavy thunder-storms that soak into the ground, and its one river, the Molopo, here and

[1] Diamonds are found here in "pipes" running deep into the earth, which appear to have been the chimneys of volcanoes filled with mud or "blue ground". Such gems as had got washed among the pebbles by the streams, or otherwise brought to the surface, were soon picked up among so many searchers. Now they must be dug for in deep mines, by the help of machinery and much labour. The great mine in the middle of Kimberley seems one of the biggest holes ever dug by men. It is large enough to bury an English village 400 feet below the ground. When the miners could dig no more in the open air they sunk shafts downwards, from which galleries are pushed sideways underground, as in a coal-mine. In these galleries, lit by electric light, the blue earth containing the diamonds is cut out and brought up in trucks. After being exposed to the air for months to make it dry and powdery, this precious earth is put under running water that washes away all but the hard part, where the diamonds are still concealed among pebbles and rubbish, settling down like the dregs of a coffee-cup. Other machinery is used to separate this stuff, and at last the diamonds are sifted out and cleaned, after lying unseen under the earth for more years than one can count.

These crystals of pure carbon, for which men risk and suffer so much, are of several tints—yellow, green, blue, pink, brown, &c.,—both clear and opaque, valued by their size, colour, and purity, the most precious being perfectly colourless and pellucid. An important task is the sifting out of the stones according to their quality, which needs much skill and patience; for to an inexpert eye, in the rough, they look rather like lumps of gum arabic. A photograph shows the notorious Barney Barnato carrying a pailful of diamonds, the produce of his company's mines for weeks, down the chief street of Kimberley; and the story is that his then rival, Rhodes, had cunningly suggested to him this ostentatious freak, the effect of which was the whole collection having to be resifted, while the tricked proprietors lay for so many weeks out of the market.

When property at once so valuable and so easily concealed is being handled, most elaborate precautions must be taken against stealing. The natives, who do most of the work, are confined during the period of their engagement in compounds, where their prison of iron huts is fenced in with barbed wire and covered with net-work, to prevent all communication with the outside world. The works are surrounded by such fences, guarded by armed sentinels, and strongly patrolled at night, as well as swept by electric search-lights. The compounds include a hospital, stores, swimming-baths, and other means of recreation for these prisoners of industry. On coming out of a mine the "boys" have to strip naked and hang up their clothes, which are carefully searched, as are their bodies, hair, mouths, toes, and all, every place where might be concealed a speck of crystal worth to them a small fortune. Then they are turned into their enclosure, where they find blankets instead of their clothes, given back to them only when they return to work in the morning. In case of suspicion they may be subjected to disgusting ordeals such as those exercised by pirates on their captives, but they show themselves wonderfully patient and good-humoured under such indignities. This compound system has the further aim of keeping the Kaffir in hand for the term of his engagement, since, as with other children of nature, spells of exertion can be got out of him rather than a sustained disposition to industry. As for his honesty, the utmost precautions have not prevented diamonds being often sold on the sly to the profit of others than the owners of the claims and the machinery. There sprang up a class of white receivers, "illicit diamond-buyers", as to whose ingenious tricks strange stories are told. To check this crime the severe "I.D.B." acts were passed, under which one dare not have possession of a diamond without being able to account for it; and these laws have been so inquisitorially enforced that it is believed innocent as well as guilty men were sentenced to long terms of imprisonment. The compounds on the Rand are merely for keeping the diggers in restraint, as here gold comes into their hands in no more tempting form than that of mud and rock.

there disappears, as in the "swallows" of our Derbyshire streams. This intermittent flow joins with the Kalahari Nosob's to form the Hygab, tributary of the Orange. The dry beds or channels, called *laagten*, show how the region has once been better watered; and now it begins to be cut up by barbed iron fences, where British and Boer settlers are trying to get water enough from wells and dams to keep cattle on land that has at least the advantage of being dirt-cheap.

It may seem that this account is not a very orderly one, which neglects political in favour of natural divisions; but here again a certain irregularity of treatment is forced upon a writer who has to deal with unstable conditions. Though this long promontory to the north makes at present a dependency of Cape Colony, such a connection is only accidental, and seems not unlike to be sundered, sooner or later, while it would be a new feature in colonization if the settlers did not go displacing the Bechuana natives, and spreading a white population that, beyond the diamond region, may at present be counted by hundreds rather than thousands. The thin population of Griqualand West and of the colonized skirts of Bechuanaland is strongly British in sympathy, as is that of the eastern part of Cape Colony; and these two regions began to talk of separation from the central and southern provinces, where Dutch feeling is in the ascendency, all the more embittered by the war in which their population could take no open part. The influence of the Bond in the legislature is a clog to the prosperity of this colony, slow in adapting itself to changed circumstances that are undermining its once predominant position. At one time the inland settlements depended on the ports of the south coast, and the railways from them, when the Cape could take heavy toll of customs and transit dues. This oppression has been relieved by the rival lines that connect Johannesburg, Kimberley, and Rhodesia with the east coast, by one of which Pretoria is only a long day's journey from the sea. If the new colonies shape their destiny with wisdom, met by sympathetic consideration on the part of the home government, it looks as if the heart of South Africa might be transferred from the Cape to the Orange and the Vaal country; nor is it at all improbable that these conquered lands may become the centre of British loyalty, when stubborn disaffection still holds out in the older colony where the Union Jack seemed more firmly set.

A great step towards the development of national feeling has now been taken. In the present year (1910) the four chief states, Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange River, become confederated as the Union of South Africa—"with power to add to their number". As their first Governor-General was appointed Viscount Gladstone, son of the popular statesman whose name should be well remembered here. The constitution provides a Senate and a House of Representatives, with membership limited to European descent. This Federal parliament was to have been opened by King George V, but for the calamity that placed him on the throne. Its seat is placed at Capetown, while Pretoria is to be the administrative capital. The English and the Dutch language are to rank equally as official. The example of two alien races in Canada, thriving side by side under the same flag, should be hopeful for the new Union that thus seeks to live down intercolonial as well as international jealousies.

The present account of South Africa is bound to be unsatisfactory as snap-shotted at a doubtful period of transition. It concludes with a brief description of Cape Colony, the more settled base of our far-spread African dominion, which as yet contains a good half of the white population.

# THE CAPE COLONY

This principal state of South Africa includes, as we have seen, a tongue of Bechuanaland stretching up to the frontier of Rhodesia; but its old boundary —the Orange River—makes a neat and natural division. From this river the country, more or less settled by British and Dutch colonists, falls to the sea in terraced plains, cut off by long mountain ranges mostly running parallel across the end of the continent. These plains, south of the High Veldt, are generally spoken of as *karroos*, a native word expressing their parched surface. On both sides of the Orange, travellers by rail find themselves passing over a windy, dusty,

treeless flat, covered in the dry season with yellowish grass, and when heights come in view their tops dotted by patches of bush, "like an African's head with its short bunches of crinkly hair". Such a monotonous prospect, with lonely houses or groups of tin shanties as rare signs of habitation, is the common one on the thousand-miles journey between the Cape and Mafeking. Some transverse ridges and blocks of mountain diversify this main upland; then comes the great chain, known under different names—Roggeveldt, Nieuwveldt, Sneeuwberg, &c., —as it runs from east to west, its highest point being the Compass Peak, about 9000 feet. Between this and a lower range to the south, christened on one stretch the White, on another the Black Mountain by the original Dutch settlers, is enclosed a plain called the Great Karroo, standing about 3000 feet high. Farther to the south the Little Karroo lies between the latter range and another behind the coast, beyond which, at last, we descend into the rich strips where towns, villages, and snug farms lie among trees and corn-fields, and along rivers tumbling down from the mountains whose debris chokes up their mouths with bars and sand-banks. The shore-line, indeed, is often a waste of shifting sand-hills, which can

be anchored by planting suitable vegetation, as has been done to reclaim the Landes of Gascony. Most travellers in this part of the world seem so practically minded, and so much in a hurry, that they tell us too little of the grand and beautiful scenery to be found by turning aside into its mountain ranges, the peaks and passes, the glens and ravines, the cliffs and caves, the grand waterfalls, the luxuriant natural forests. Main routes may be expected to seek more level ground, where much of the country for most of the year has the bleached and wizened aspect of a semi-desert, whose oases depend upon dams, deep wells, and artificial channels.[1]

Drought is the weak point of this colony, relieved by rains which are fairly regular and may come any month in the year, but in the interior sometimes fail for a year or two together. Its strong point is the crisp pure air of the upland terraces, so clear that leagues of plain look as if one could walk across them in half an hour, and mountains a long day's journey off appear to be within a few miles. This air is the medicine that works such wonders on consumptive patients, often restored to health by a single winter spent on the warm yet bracing heights. The driest parts are the famous Karroos, stretches of flat, brown, stony scrub, over which the soil is baked hard as a brick, unless where some green patch shows that a well has been sunk by settlers, else the only water found is in shallow salt lakelets, fragments of what once appears to have been an inland sea; or a line of dusty mimosas mark the bed of a rarely-flushed stream. On this unlovely waste the sun paints the "incomparable pomp of eve" and the "glories of the dawn", but all day long its ragged points of bush and tufts of dry grass seem to shimmer in dazzling heat, or are disguised by the deceitful mirage, when a few hours later, under the brilliant moonlight, it may lie bound in frost. But, as in other half-deserts, a magical change can be worked by the torrential showers that burst upon it, quickly calling its withered vegetation to life, colouring masses of white and purple heath, bringing up herbs and blossoms among the naked stones, and spangling the fresh green with gay flowers. Too soon the hot sun burns all this verdure brown again, then the wonder is how nibbling goats and sheep find pasture on the thirsty and thorny scrub of the Karroo.

Millions of sheep do thrive here in ordinary seasons. The Angora goat has been introduced from Asia Minor, and its long hair figures well in the list of colonial exports. The ostrich, preserved and bred for the sake of its valuable feathers, will thrive where few other animals can pick up a livelihood, swallowing even nails and stones as aids to digestion. If an ostrich farm needs plenty of room, this is on land useless for other purposes; and the industry, a failure in other regions, has here had such success, though intermittent, that to export an ostrich from the Cape costs a fine of £100 and £5 for an egg. Standing seven

[1] "Silence and colour are the two spells which weave such potent charms in South Africa. Both are to be found here. This land is a symphony in green and brown and blue. The brilliant colouring of the bush fades into the purple and red stretches of the veldt, and that in turn gives way to the blue hills, with their soft opalescent background. One thinks of the Delectable Mountains in *Pilgrim's Progress*, and fancy easily imagines that the Celestial City must lie beyond so beautiful a horizon. But nothing lies beyond. There is no 'other side' in this land. The endless ranges stretch on and on and on, until finally the waters of the far-distant ocean vanquish and swallow up the sands of Africa. No force less mighty could subdue this great vast continent. Here and there a bush fire runs like a red streak along the hills, mingling its smoke with the fleecy clouds on the summit of the latter. A blue jay flits in the sunshine, a glittering object in the foreground; and far, far away on the road below, a wagon with its team of sixteen oxen is crawling slowly. A few gaunt ostriches are wandering among the clumps of light-green cacti, and on the distant hillside the huts of a Kaffir kraal are visible."—Violet R. Markham's *South Africa*.

feet high or more on its long legs, which can work faster than a horse's, and at full speed become invisible like the spokes of a wheel, the big black bird is harmless enough as a rule, not to say shy and stupid; but when provoked, or fighting in defence of its young, it can give a formidable blow with its powerful leg and its horny toes. In the Cape Colony flocks of these great birds are kept shut up behind wire fences, from which they will be let out to feed and exercise over thousands of acres. It is no joke going among them at the risk of getting a kick from an ill-tempered old cock; but a forked stick or a thorn bush held to its neck will usually keep it off. They are herded about like sheep, or sometimes,

Photo. T. D. Ravenscroft

Ostrich Farm, Cape Colony

when there is a long distance to go, they may be harnessed with leather reins and so driven along or made to run beside a man on horseback. When the time comes for plucking them, an operation naturally resented, a bag or box is put over the bird's head; then it stands still and lets itself be shorn as gently as a sheep; or the flock is packed so closely together that they cannot show fight. The male is taller and has the finer feathers; but he is not too proud for paternal affection, the papa ostrich taking his turn in sitting on the big eggs as well as standing guard over them, and using artful devices, it is said, to divert strangers from the future family.

It is on richer pastures that are reared four-legged cattle, where once wild beasts took heavy toll from the inferior breeds owned by Kaffirs and Hottentots. Drought and disease are now their worst plagues. In rougher parts, indeed, herds and flocks have still to be guarded against lurking tiger-cats and the baboons that show themselves among rocks, chattering and barking, but making

off on all-fours at any sign of hostility; their mischief is chiefly done among fields and orchards, but they have learned the cruel trick of catching goats and sheep to get at their milk paunches. Deadly snakes, the puff-adder and the cobra, are more insidious foes. They have a formidable enemy in the pig, on whose fat their poison seems to be lost, so, for once a hero, the prosaic grunter can be turned out into snake-infested grass with advantage to all parties but one. The great secretary-bird, as already mentioned, is preserved and enlisted for the same service. Another easily-tamed creature, the meer-cat, a kinsman of the mongoose, is often seen as a pet in houses, like our domestic pussy, its special prey being the insects that swarm on South African soil.

We have seen how even brown karroo and kloof burst into bloom after the rains of their September spring, where lilies and geraniums run wild as daisies and dandelions at home. Wherever there is a regular supply of water, natural or artificial, crops and vegetables grow richly. What we call Indian corn lifts its heavy heads to the height of 9 or 10 feet. Wheat, barley, rye, potatoes, all thrive better than in England. Figs, oranges, lemons, mulberries, pomegranates flourish here as in the south of Europe; on the heights grow better our own apples, pears, plums, peaches, and cherries. Vines have been particularly successful till assailed by the same parasite as blighted so many European vineyards in our time; and the rich vines of the Cape, as well as the colonists' odorous tobacco, find some market at home. The grenadilla is pronounced the finest African fruit. One foreign importation, the prickly-pear, has made itself only too familiar in this land of prickles, half ruining some farms by its rapid growth, while cattle suffer from eating its golden fruit covered with irritating spikelets. The Australian eucalyptus, the English oak, the Lombardy poplar, the Kabyle ash, and other exotic foliage are much planted as avenues on the dusty roads. The colonists now see the advantage of not letting trees die out or be recklessly destroyed, as was the wasteful way with the old Dutch settlers. The stretches of forest, chiefly surviving near the south-east coast and among the mountains of that corner, contain several sorts of valuable timber, the Cape teak, boxwood, the wild chestnut that blossoms about Christmas-time with masses of pink flowers, the cedar, and others distinguished by size or hardness, the massive yellow-wood, the tough stink-wood, more elegantly named laurel-wood, the rarer sneeze-wood of the eastern forests, most valuable as resisting even the *Teredo navalis*, and the assegai-wood used by the Kaffirs for their spear shafts, by white men for the spokes of wagon-wheels. These are found shrouded in luxuriant tangles of brushwood, creeping parasites, and hanging mosses, among which here and there the elephant and the buffalo still find shelter.

The chief towns are joined to each other by good roads, which in more out-of-the-way parts fall off into mere tracks, or the slow traveller in cart or wagon steers his course over the open veldt as he can, crossing its streams or spruits by ferries or by the fords called *drifts*, which may bring him to a stand for days when swollen by a freshet. Many of those towns that dot the map of Cape Colony are little better than villages, though they may be the market-place or railway-station of areas as large as an English county. The whole population of 277,000 square miles is under 600,000 white men, with perhaps thrice as many natives, the latter being difficult to calculate, as their habits and prejudices stand in the way of census-taking. The Kaffirs are more thickly packed towards

## CROSSING A SOUTH AFRICAN DRIFT

The plate shows a typical Cape wagon, such as the Boers use in their treks, being hauled across a ford on the Eland river by a team of oxen. These wagons are often much larger than the one represented in the illustration, and the teams of oxen may be considerably longer. It is probable that the trek-wagon with its ox-team will long be a familiar feature on the South African veldt, despite the rapid extension of regular roads and of railways. South African rivers are rather a hindrance than an aid to intercommunication. Many of them almost dry up in one period of the year and become raging torrents in another period.

(23)

SOUTH AFRICAN DRIFT

the east end, the former British Kaffraria, where still they have almost to themselves areas known as Pongoland, Tembuland, and Griqualand East. The east central and southern parts are those most exploited by colonists. The north-western part, home of Hottentots and Bushmen, is the most thinly populated, the coast here continuing the inhospitable characteristics of the German shore.

The white settlers are mostly, in uncertain proportions, of Dutch and British origin, still mixed together too much like oil and vinegar. For the last twenty years or more political animosity has run high between them, fanned by the Afrikander Bond and the sympathy of the Dutch with their Boer kinsmen. The

Photo, T. D. Ravenscroft

Native Family, Cape Colony

constitution is a rough copy of our own, a governor appointed by the crown, with Upper and Lower Houses of Parliament, elected by a wide suffrage, to which coloured voters are admitted under qualifications of education and property, a privilege which seems not very keenly appreciated. Church establishment has been replaced by a comprehensive system of education. About half the population profess some form of Christianity, the most numerous bodies being the Dutch Reformed Church, the Church of England, and the Wesleyan Methodists. Some thousands of natives have set up an Ethiopian church of their own, with black bishop and parsons, in which Christian doctrine shows a tendency to take on curious excrescences. Law is administered on the basis of the Roman-Dutch model, by resident magistrates, circuit courts, and a supreme court, all persons having equal rights. For electoral and administrative purposes the original Eastern and Western regions of the colony are divided into seven provinces. and subdivided into districts usually named from their chief town.

The Eastern province, separated from Natal by the quasi-independent Pondoland and Griqualand East, is that into which the natives have been pressed most closely together by successive Kaffir wars, now almost forgotten in England, where they made some noise in their time. On the west side of this province, within the boundary of the Great Kei River, the white men have fully taken possession, while to the east there are only some thousands of them among three-quarters of a million Kaffirs. The coast-line round to Durban is described as "a paradise of hills, and rocks, and waters", seen by travellers most often from the sea, but the port of St. John's, below Pondoland, is believed to have a future before it. At the mouth of the Buffalo River, the rising port of East London (25,000), though hampered by a bar, like so many other African harbours, does a good deal of trade in connection with its railway line running north to join the main system. King Williamstown, on a branch of the railway, and Queenstown, far inland on the main line, are both places of nearly 10,000 people. Then there are several flourishing settlements whose names, Frankfort, Hanover, &c., tell how they were colonized by industrious Germans; but in general the colonists on this side are of British stock. This province has great hope in the coal-fields of its mountain background, which curves round from the Drakenberg range of Natal.

The South-Eastern province is so important that it inclines to resent Cape Town's supremacy, having itself originally been a nucleus of separate British settlement. Its chief town is Port Elizabeth, the "Liverpool of South Africa", which with 35,000 inhabitants or so has more commerce than Cape Town. But the most beautiful place and the most attractive is Grahamstown (14,000), which stands some way inland, in a high and healthy situation, proud of its public buildings, schools, and English cathedral, designed, in the fashion of his day, by Sir G. G. Scott. Grahamstown, though very English in sentiment, has had conceived for it at one time the ambition of being capital of a united and independent South Africa. It is connected by rail with the little Port Alfred, to the east of Port Elizabeth, as also with the latter port, from which a line runs inland that makes the shortest way to the Transvaal, and another, passing by Uitenhage (12,000) and Graaf Reinet, goes through the Midland province. Lovedale is notable as the largest mission-station in the world, where the Free Church of Scotland gives industrial training as well as education and religious teaching to a promising school of native neophytes.

The North-Eastern province, behind the South-Eastern, is a larger and more thinly populated area, whose chief town, Cradock, on the Great Fish River, seems to have under 8000 people, but some day may become a prosperous spa through its sulphurous springs. Some of its other towns bear names such as Somerset East, and Fort Beaufort, with which Lord Charles Somerset's governorship stamped his family titles so freely on the map of South Africa. On the north side, the Dutch feeling that was so strong in the war is shown by names like Burghersdorp, Middelburg, and Stormberg, the last two known as junctions of the three interlacing railway lines from the coast to the interior.

The large Midland province, like its neighbour last mentioned, is a thinly-settled pastoral area of mountains and karroo plains. Its chief town, Graaf Reinet, "City of the Desert", on the Sunday River, has about 10,000 people, and there is but one town as large, Uitenhage, on the railway between it and Port Elizabeth, 400 miles away. On the other side of the Great Karroo,

Beaufort West stands upon the main line from Cape Town, a place whose fine climate makes it a résort of invalids. Other names, Prince Albert, Richmond, Aberdeen, Murraysburg, belong to big villages in which Britons have tried to remember their native land.

This central region is cut off from the sea by the long coast-line of the South-Western province, where the harbour of Mossel Bay appears to flourish in spite of delay to bring it in touch with the railway system. The country has beautiful mountain and forest scenery, with timber, fisheries, tobacco and brandy-making as prosaic resources; but it shows no large towns, Georgetown (4000) being the one most visited for its fine scenery, Knysna for its grand forest, and Oudtshoorn (9000) for the wonderful Cango stalactite caves, that have been penetrated for more than a mile but are believed to be of far greater extent. Most of the people are Dutch, and the settlements here have preserved much of their primitive simplicity.

The Hartebeest tributary of the Orange, most of the year an empty bed, separates the Midland from the large North-Western province on the Atlantic coast, which chiefly consists of barren shores and arid steppes, like the Great Bushman land on the edge of the German territory. In the north, towards the Orange River, it has important copper-mines at Ookiep, connected by a railway with Port Nolloth. Farther down there is another little settlement at the mouth of the Olifants River, not to be confused with its namesake of the Limpopo Basin; and south of this the abandoned Dutch harbour of Saldanha Bay is now being brought into use again. The southern part of the province shows richer lands and thicker population centred at Worcester (8000) and Malmesbury, about which lies the best corn country of the colony. Worcester also is noted for the making of the Cape wagons and carts that plough their way over the rough veldt, while the "spiders" or light-framed buggies, much used on the roads, come chiefly from America.

In the south-western corner lies a fragment of the old Western province, still specially known by this name, the smallest division of all, but the most important, for here are concentrated the elements of settled prosperity about the capital, Cape Town, whence starts the main line of railway, that at De Aar junction throws off an eastward branch to join those from Port Elizabeth and East London in their continuation to Bloemfontein and Pretoria, while the west line, crossing the Orange near Hopetown, holds on through Bechuanaland into Rhodesia, and has now spanned the Zambesi on its ambitious progress towards the Nile. This heart of the colony is one not only of its richest but of its most lovely parts, containing finely situated old Dutch settlements like the Paarl (11,000) and Stellenbosch (5000), as well as the beautiful suburbs of Cape Town, more than one of which is a large place, as towns go here; then a less stinted rainfall and a more distinct division of seasons than in the dry interior make Africa's southern end a garden of varied vegetation, both natural and cultivated. "It would be hard to find anywhere," declares that far traveller Mr. Bryce, "even in Italy or the Pyrenees, more exquisite combinations of soft and cultivated landscape with grand mountain forms." The soil has mineral treasures also: much is hoped from extensive tin lodes and deposits of kaolin, the rare china-clay in which Cornwall does such good business.

Cape Town, the oldest city of South Africa, counts a total population, taking in its dependencies, of 170,000 people, a medley of all shades of colour,

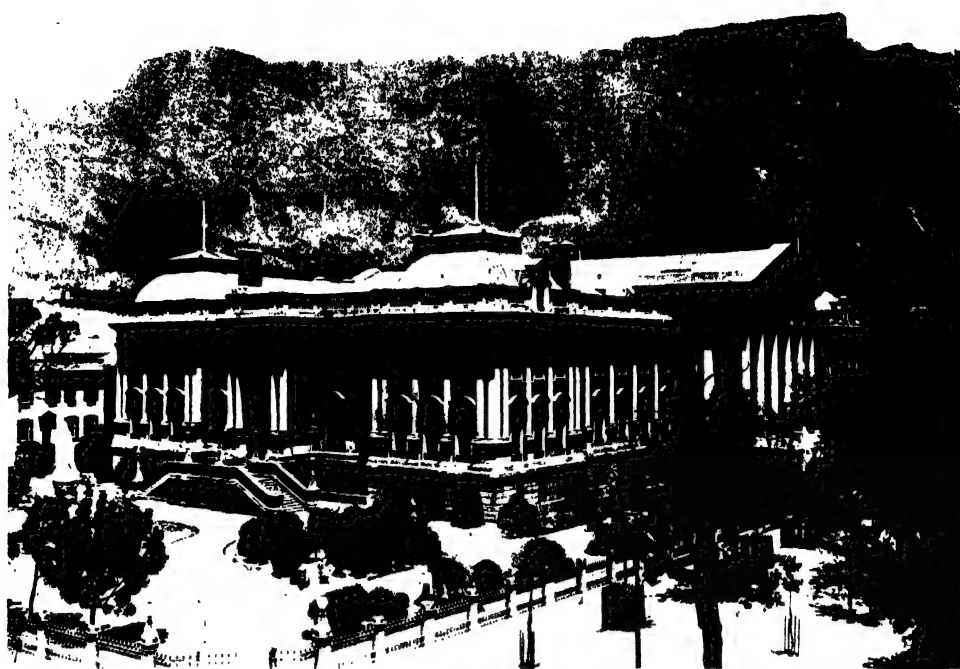



Photo N. P. Edwards

Parliament Buildings, Cape Town

from the fresh face of the English visitor to the black skin of the negro. Among the natives of every continent gathered here, conspicuous are thousands of gaily-dressed Moslem Malays, who, with the local half-castes, make the greater part of the working-class. The city has been warmly admired by Froude and other travellers, a praise which it owes to its situation rather than to its streets, most of them roomy, regular, and in keeping with their tramways and electric light, though here and there remain some of the low flat-roofed gabled Dutch houses, with their sociable veranda *stoep*, that is to Africa what the hearth-stone is to England. The Dutch names have generally given place to English ones, as in the case of Adderley Street, the chief thoroughfare, which shows a truly British jumble of architecture. Government Avenue, shaded by fine oaks, is site of the really noble Parliament Buildings, of the more modest Governor's residence, of a rich museum, of a library containing bibliographical treasures which some visitors think thrown away here, and of fine botanical gardens. A survival more picturesque than serviceable is the old castle used as military head-quarters; and outside the city stands the notable Royal Observatory, whose position and management give it such importance in the scientific world. Round about, the lions of Cape Town include some charming seats, such as Groote Schuur (Great Barn), the late Mr. Rhodes' magnificent park which he left to the colony; Bishopscourt, home of the Anglican bishop; and Constantia, the Government wine farm, that gave its name to one of the best-known Cape vintages. Wynberg, embowered among vineyards, chestnuts, and pines, is a famous beauty-spot of the environs, and Sea Point and Kalkbay are bathing-resorts towards which the city runs in long lines of villas and villages.

The worst thing to be told of Cape Town is the trying south-east wind

prevalent here in summer, though it comes welcomed to carry off the bad smells, as noticeable as the dust and sand that, blown along by this wind, sweeps the streets like a broom. It is nicknamed the "Cape Doctor", for its supposed salubrious effects; but its doctoring proves rather disagreeable, as described by Mr. R. M. Ballantyne: "It rattles roofs and windows, and all but overturns steeples and chimneys; it well-nigh blows the shops inside out, and fills them with dust; it removes hats and bonnets by the score, and sweeps up small pebbles in its mad career, so that one feels as if being painfully pelted with buck-shot; it causes the shipping to strain fearfully at its cables, and churns the

Photo. T. D. Ravenscroft

Cape Town and "The Devil's Peak"

waters of Table Bay into a seething mass of snow and indigo". A visible work of this south-east wind is the "Table-cloth" of vapour condensed in the dry air at the top of Table Mountain, upon which it spreads a snow-like cloud rolling down towards the city below in waves of mist that melt into the bright sunlight. In winter the prevailing north-west currents cause the same phenomenon, but then the cloud will roll in the opposite direction, away from the city. Table Mountain is the famous feature of the scenery here, a gray flat-topped mass of that shape so common in South African hills, 3500 feet high, with its sheer precipices, wooded hollows, the rocky buttresses known as the Twelve Apostles, and the grand heights on either side, called "The Lion's Head" and "The Devil's Peak", making a background such as hardly another city can boast, though, on a smaller scale, Edinburgh has similar features in her Arthur's Seat and Salisbury Crags. A drive cut round the mountain commands views of sea and land that call forth the admiration of the most *blasé* travellers, especially

if their visit be in the African spring, when the broken slopes are lit up with flowers and blossoms.[1]

The mountain falls gradually away in the long tongue of the Cape of Good Hope, first christened by Bartholomew Diaz the "Cape of Storms". At the neck of this, on the Atlantic side, is Table Bay, the harbour of Cape Town, off which lies Robben Island, with its lighthouse and leper hospital. On the other side, in the wider opening of False Bay, is the naval station Simonstown. The prominent cape between is not the southernmost end of Africa, for which we must look some hundred miles east at Cape Agulhas, "The Needles", where we have come nearly five thousand miles from the projection of Tunis that makes the most northerly point of the continent.

[1] "Looking down the narrow gullies that descend from the top, one sees the intensely blue sea closing them below, framed between their jutting crags, while on the other side the busy streets and wharves of Cape Town lie directly under the eye, and one can discover the vehicles in the streets and the trees in the governor's garden. The heaths and other flowers and shrubs that grow profusely over the wide top, which is not flat, as he who looks at it from the sea fancies, but cut up by glens, with here and there lake reservoirs in the hollows, are very lovely, and give a novel and peculiar charm to this ascent. Nor is the excursion to Cape Point, the real Cape of Storms of Bartholomew Diaz, and the Cape of Good Hope of Vasco da Gama, less beautiful. An hour in the railway brings one to Simon's Bay, the station of the British naval squadron, a small but fairly well sheltered inlet under high hills. From this one drives for four hours over a very rough track through a lonely and silent country, sometimes sandy, sometimes thick with brushwood, but everywhere decked with brilliant flowers, to the Cape, a magnificent headland rising almost vertically from the ocean to a height of 800 feet. Long, heavy surges are always foaming on the rocks below, and nowhere even on this troubled coast, where the hot Mozambique current meets a stream of cold Antarctic water, do gales more often howl and shriek than round these rocky pinnacles. One can well understand the terror with which the Portuguese sailors five centuries ago used to see the grim headland loom up through the clouds, driven by the strong south-easters, that kept them struggling for days or weeks to round the Cape, that marked their way to India."—Bryce's *Impressions of South Africa.*

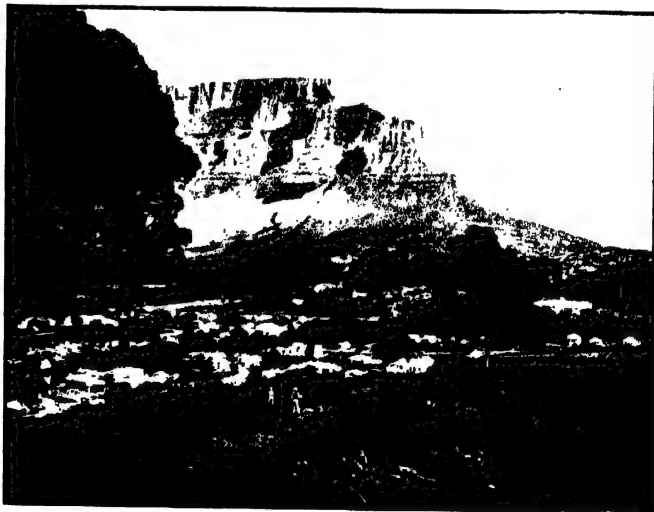



Photo. Wilson

Cape Town and Table Mountain

# Geographical and Commercial Survey

## AFRICA

### Area and Population

| Political Divisions. | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population. |
|---|---|---|
| INDEPENDENT STATES— | | |
| Morocco (*a*) | 220,000 | 5,000,000 |
| Liberia | 35,000 | 2,000,000 |
| Abyssinia | 210,000 | 4,000,000 |
| **Total Independent** | **465,000** | **11,000,000** |
| BRITISH POSSESSIONS— | | |
| *Self-governing Colonies* | | |
| Union of South Africa: | | |
| Cape Colony | 277,200 | 2,410,000 |
| Natal | 35,370 | 1,110,000 |
| Orange Free State | 50,400 | 390,000 |
| Transvaal | 111,200 | 1,270,000 |
| *Crown Colonies:* | | |
| Southern Nigeria and Protectorate | 77,260 | 4,500,000 |
| Gold Coast and Protectorate | 119,260 | 1,490,000 |
| Sierra Leone and Protectorate | 34,000 | 1,100,000 |
| Gambia and Protectorate | 3,130 | 170,000 |
| Mauritius and Dependencies | 730 | 380,000 |
| Seychelles and Dependencies | 150 | 20,000 |
| St. Helena | 50 | 5,000 |
| Ascension | 35 | 400 |
| Tristan da Cunha Islands | 45 | 70 |
| *Protectorates:* | | |
| Northern Nigeria | 256,400 | 10,000,000 |
| British Somaliland | 68,000 | 300,000 |
| East Africa Protectorate | 177,000 | 4,000,000 |
| Uganda Protectorate | 223,500 | 4,000,000 |
| Zanzibar Protectorate | 1,020 | 200,000 |
| Swaziland | 6,500 | 86,000 |
| Rhodesia | 431,270 | 1,500,000 |
| Nyasaland Protectorate | 41,000 | 1,000,000 |
| Bechuanaland Protectorate | 275,000 | 150,000 |
| Basutoland | 10,300 | 350,000 |
| Sokotra | 1,380 | [illegible],000 |
| *Administrative Possessions:* | | |
| Egypt (*b*) | 400,000 | 9,735,000 |
| Anglo-Egyptian Sudan | 950,000 | 2,000,000 |
| **Total British** | **3,550,000[1]** | **46,200,000[1]** |

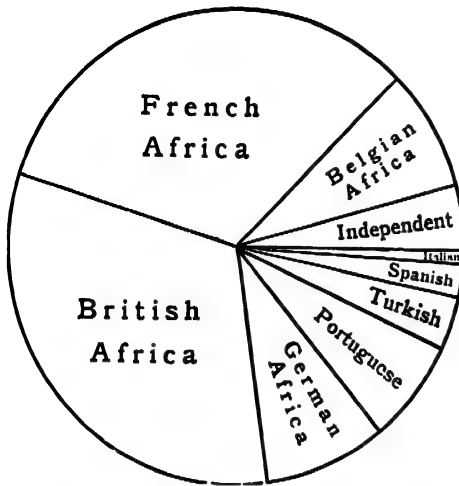
[1] Round Totals.

| Political Divisions. | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population |
|---|---|---|
| **French Possessions—** | | |
| Algeria | 343,750 | 4,800,000 |
| Tunis | 51,000 | 2,000,000 |
| Senegal | 806,000 | 4,530,000 |
| French Guinea | 95,000 | 2,200,000 |
| Ivory Coast | 116,000 | 2,000,000 |
| Dahomey | 60,000 | 1,000,000 |
| French Congo (Gaboon, Middle Congo, Ubangi, Chad Territories) | 450,000 | 10,000,000 |
| Upper Senegal and the Niger (including the Military Territory) | 210,000 | 3,000,000 |
| The French Sahara (including the Civil Territory of Mauritania) | 1,390,000 | 2,600,000 |
| Somali Coast Protectorate | 46,000 | 200,000 |
| Madagascar and Dependencies | 227,800 | 2,506,000 |
| Réunion | 965 | 174,000 |
| Mayotte | 140 | 12,000 |
| Comoro Islands | 620 | 47,000 |
| St. Paul, Amsterdam, and Kerguelen | — | — |
| **Total French** | 3,797,300[1] | 35,000,000[1] |
| **German Possessions—** | | |
| Togoland | 33,700 | 2,500,000 |
| Kamerun | 191,200 | 3,500,000 |
| German South-West Africa | 322,500 | 200,000 |
| German East Africa | 384,200 | 6,000,000 |
| **Total German** | 931,600 | 13,100,000 |
| **Portuguese Possessions—** | | |
| Angola (Portuguese West Africa) | 484,800 | 4,120,000 |
| Portuguese East Africa | 293,400 | 3,120,000 |
| Portuguese Guinea | 13,940 | 820,000 |
| Cape Verde Islands | 1,480 | 150,000 |
| Prince and St. Thomas Islands | 360 | 42,000 |
| **Total Portuguese** | 794,000[1] | 8,252,000 |
| **Italian Possessions—** | | |
| Eritrea | 88,500 | 450,000 |
| Italian Somaliland | 100,000 | 400,000 |
| **Total Italian** | 188,500 | 850,000 |
| **Spanish Possessions—** | | |
| Rio de Oro and Adrar | 243,000 | 100,000 |
| Rio Muni, &c. | 9,800 | 150,000 |
| Fernando Po, Annobon, &c. | 780 | 24,000 |
| Places on Morocco Coast | — | — |
| **Total Spanish** | 253,600[1] | 274,000 |
| **Turkish Possession—** | | |
| Tripoli (with Barca and Fezzan) | 399,000 | 1,000,000 |
| **Belgian Possession—** | | |
| Congo State (*c*) | 900,000 | 30,000,000 |
| **Total Africa** | 11,279,000[1] | 146,000,000[1] |

(*a*) Morocco may now be regarded as in process of becoming a French protectorate.

(*b*) Egypt is still nominally under the suzerainty of Turkey, but the actual administration is fully controlled by Britain.

(*c*) The Congo State was till recently ruled by a company whose head was the King of the Belgians, but it is now a Belgian possession.

[1] Round totals.

Political Distribution of the Area of Africa

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the total area of the African continent according to political status. Owing to the uncertainty of many of the available figures the diagram gives only an approximately accurate account of the facts. Most of Africa is now in the possession, or under the suzerainty, of European powers, and of the three remaining independent states, two (Morocco and Liberia) are very weak. The Congo State became a Belgian possession in 1908. Britain and France are the leading powers in Africa, the latter possessing the largest extent of territory.

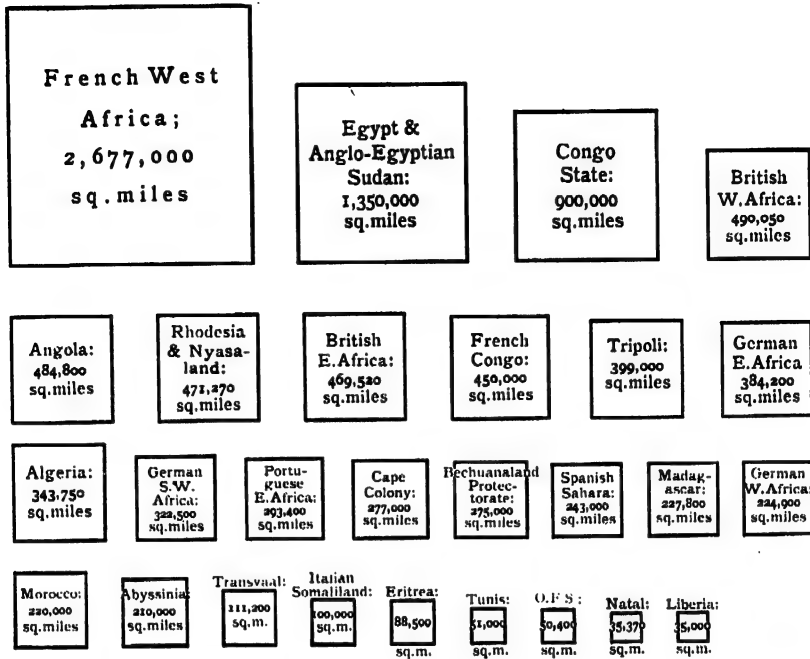
Political Distribution of the Population of Africa

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the population of Africa according to political status. The figures of population are subject to greater uncertainty than those of area, and the diagram cannot, therefore, be relied upon in detail. British Africa, though of smaller area than French Africa, has a much larger population, because the latter includes a large expanse of the Sahara with few or no inhabitants.

Population of Africa according to Religion

The above circle diagram shows roughly the distribution of the population of Africa according to religious belief. This diagram is to be taken as representing the religious condition of Africa only in a very general way. Pagans of all kinds form about three-quarters of the population, the great majority of the remainder being Mohammedans. This diagram should be taken along with the detailed table of African races which is given on the following two pages.

The Surface of Africa according to State of Cultivation or Cultivability

The above circle diagram represents roughly the extent of cultivation of the soil of Africa, and also the areas of cultivable grass-lands or savannahs, of forests, and of deserts and other unproductive expanses. Africa as a whole is still almost in a state of nature, in respect of cultivation as in other respects, but some of the peripheral lands have been developed to a considerable extent. Even in these, however, there is great scope for future progress. More detailed information regarding the extent and nature of cultivation in Africa will be found under the principal countries

The above square diagrams represent the relative areas of the principal political divisions of Africa. The scale is the same as for the corresponding series of diagrams for Asia.

## The Races of Africa

The following table shows the principal African peoples classified according to the best modern research as represented by Prof. A. H. Keane:—

### A. Caucasic Division

I. Eastern Hamites—

*Copts* and **Fellahin** (Nile Valley below first Cataract).
**Bishari, Hadendowa, Ababdeh,** &c. (between Nile and Red Sea, north of Abyssinia).
**Agao** (Abyssinian aborigines).
**Afar** or **Danakil** (Eritrea).
**Gallas** (Abyssinia and southwards).
**Somalis** (Somaliland).
Turkana and Rendileh (Lake Rudolf).
Masai, &c. (to east of Victoria Nyanza).
Wahuma (intermingled with Bantus in Uganda, &c.).

II. Western Hamites—

**Berbers,** comprising Kabyles (N. Algeria and Morocco), Shellalas or Shluhs (W. Atlas), Haratin or Black Berbers (S. Atlas), Beni-Mzabs (Algeria and Tunisia), Tuaregs (W. Central Sahara), some peoples of the Libyan oases.
**Tedas** or N. Tibbus, and **Dazas** or S. Tibbus (Tibesti, in Sahara), latter with Negroid strain.

III. Semites—

*Himyarites,* comprising the Tigré, Amharas, and Shoas of Abyssinia.
**Arabs,** mostly Bedouins (Egypt, Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Tripoli, north-west coast states, W. Sahara, much of Sudan, east coast far south).
Jews (Egypt, Tripoli, north-west coast states).

IV. Europeans—

*Italians, French, Greeks, Spaniards* (north coast).
*Dutch* or *Boers* (British S. Africa).
*British* (British S. and Central Africa chiefly).
*Germans* (Cape Colony, Transvaal, &c.).
*Portuguese* (Portuguese possessions).

### B. Negritic Division

I. Sudanese Negroes—

**Wolof** Group (chiefly Jolofs), from lower Senegal to Cape Verde.
Felup Group, in Portuguese Guinea.
**Toucouleur (Tacuror),** about upper Senegal.
**Mandingan** Group (including Bambara, Sarakolé, Suzy, Jallonké, Susu, &c.), in Senegambia and Upper Niger.
**Songhay (Sonrhay),** about middle Niger.
Temné Group, in Sierra Leone.
**Fulah** Group (Negroid Hamites), Senegambia and scattered east to Darfur.
Liberian Groups (including *Colonials,* Kru, &c.). in Liberia.

I. SUDANESE NEGROES (*Continued*)—

Upper Guinea Groups, including **Oshin** and Agni of Ivory Coast, the Tshi peoples of Gold Coast (Ashanti, Fanti, &c.), Ga peoples of Gold Coast, the Ewe peoples of Slave Coast (Togo, Dahomans, &c.), and Yoruba group of Lagos and vicinity (Egba, Oyo, Jebu, &c.).

Niger-Benue Groups, including Benin, Ibo, **Igbara** or Nupe, Iju or Akassa, Nempé, Okrika, Qua, Efik, Andoni, Ebe, Kambari, Akpa, Wakari, Mitchi, **Doma**, &c., about Niger Delta, Oil Rivers, Lower Benue, &c.

Adamawa Groups, including Batta, Fala, &c., about Upper Benue.

Niger Bend Groups, including Mossi, **Gonja**, **Gurma**, Tombo, **Gurunga**, &c.

**Haussa** (Negroid Hamites), leading nation in Central Sudan.

Chad Groups, including **Kanuri** (Negro-Hamitic) of Bornu and Kanem, **Baghirmi** of Lower Shari basin and Bornu, Yedina of Lake Chad, Kuri of Lake Chad, Mosgu, &c.

**Wadai** Groups, in Wadai and Darfur.

Nuba-Fur Group, including **Fur** of Darfur, Nuba of Kordofan, Nile Nubians, &c.

Nilotic Groups, including Shuli, Laborc, Kirim, Luri, Madi, Bari, Nuer, Dinka, Shilluk, Latuka, Dyur, Bongo, &c., upper Nile basin.

Welle Groups, including Niam-Niam (A-Zandeh), Mangbattu (Monbuttu), &c., Welle basin.

Lake Groups, including Kavirondo and other peoples of Uganda Protectorate.

II. BANTU NEGROIDS—

Bakwiri, Duala, &c., in Kamerun.

Ashira. Mpongwe, Okanda, Apingi, Apono, Ishogo, Ashango, Fans, Bakalai, &c., in French Congo.

Balunda, Bayansi, Bateke, Bangala, Balolo, Bakuba, Bakete, Baluba, Tushilange, Bakongo, Bafyots (Kabinda), Basoko, Worua, Manyema, Chibokwe, Abunda, Ganguella, &c., in Congo State and Angola.

Ovampo, Ova-Herero, in German S.W. Africa; Hill Damaras intermediate between Bantus and Hottentots.

Waganda, Wanyoro, Wasoga, &c., in Uganda Protectorate.

Wagiryama, Wapokomo, Wanyika, Waduruma, Wateita, Wakamba, &c., in British E. Africa.

**Suahili**, Arab-Bantu mixed race, along east coast.

Wankonde, Wanyamwezi, Wazaramo, Wadoa, Wakhutu, Wasagara, Wagogo, Wahehe, &c., in German E. Africa.

Wangindo (Nyassaland); Wayao and Makua (Mozambique).

Gaza and Balempa in Portuguese East Africa.

Bechuanas (Bamangwato, Barolongs, Barotse, Bakwena, &c.), in Bechuanaland, &c.; Basutos, in Basutoland; Tongas, in Tongaland; Mashonas, in Mashonaland; Makololo, in Nyasaland Protectorate.

Zulus (Zululand), Matabele (Rhodesia), Angoni (Nyasaland).

Kaffirs (Ama-Xosa, Ama-Tembu, Ama-Mpondo) in E. Cape Colony; Fingoes.

III. BUSHMEN—Kalahari Desert chiefly.

IV. HOTTENTOTS (KHOI-KHOIN)—

Namaqua, in German S.W. Africa and W. Cape Colony.

Koraqua, about upper Orange and Vaal.

Griqua, in Griqualand East.

Gonaqua, in E. Cape Colony

V. NEGRITOES—

Akkas, Wochuas, Achuas, Wambutti, in valleys of Welle, Aruwimi, and Semliki.

Wandorobos, Dokos, &c., S. Gallaland and Masailand.

Batwa, in valley of Sankuru.

Abongo and Obongo, in Ogowé basin.

Bakwando, &c., in Angola.

Babinga, about Sangha (a Congo tributary).

Vaalpens, about middle Limpopo.

### C. MONGOLIC DIVISION

The Hova, Betsileo, Sakalava, &c., of Madagascar, all Malays with more or less of a Negro strain.

The names of mainly Christian peoples are in italics, of mainly Mohammedan ones in black type. The rest are wholly or mainly Pagan, except the Jews.

## Principal Towns and Settlements of Africa

Names of capitals or seats of government are printed in italics.

MOROCCO—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Fez* (140,000). | *Morocco* (50,000). |
| Tangier (30,000). | Mogador. |
| Dar-al-Baida. | Ceuta (Spanish). |
| Tetuan. | Laraiche. |
| Rabat. | Mazagan. |
| Saffi. | Mequinez. |

LIBERIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Monrovia* (5000). | Robertsport. |
| Harper. | Marshall. |

ABYSSINIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Addis Abeba.* | Addis Alam. |
| Gondar. | Adua. |
| Axum. | Ankober. |
| Antalo. | Magdala. |
| Harrar (40,000). | |

CAPE COLONY—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Cape Town* (134,550 in 1904). | Kimberley (34,260). |
| | East London (24,054). |
| Port Elizabeth (32,921). | Grahamstown (13,877). |
| Paarl (11,283). | Graaff Reinet (10,072). |
| Beaconsfield (9374). | Uitenhage (12,199). |
| King William's Town (9500). | Cradock (7673). |
| | Vryburg. |
| Worcester (8087). | Oudtshoorn. |
| Swellendam. | Simon's Town. |
| Aliwal North. | Mossel Bay. |
| Stellenbosch. | Mafeking. |
| Queenstown. | Kuruman. |
| Taungs. | |

NATAL—

| | |
|---|---|
| Durban (67,842 in 1904). | *Pietermaritzburg* (31,199). |
| Ladysmith (5568). | Newcastle. |
| Dundee. | Vryheid. |
| Utrecht. | Eshowe (Zululand). |

ORANGE FREE STATE—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Bloemfontein* (33,890 in 1904). | Harrismith. |
| Kroonstad. | Jagersfontein. |
| Ladybrand. | Winburg. |

TRANSVAAL—

| | |
|---|---|
| Johannesburg (160,017 in 1904). | *Pretoria* (36,700). |
| Krugersdorp. | Heidelberg. |
| Potchefstroom. | Pietersburg. |
| Lydenburg. | Barberton. |
| | Rustenburg. |

SWAZILAND—

| | |
|---|---|
| Bremersdorp. | *Mbabaan.* |

SOUTHERN NIGERIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Lagos* (41,847 in 1901). | Abeokuta (200,000). |
| Ibadan (150,000). | Oyo. |
| Old Calabar. | Okrika. |
| Bonny. | New Calabar. |
| Akassa. | Wari. |
| Benin. | Onicha. |
| Ida. | Ado. |
| Asaba. | |

GOLD COAST—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Accra* (17,892 in 1901). | Kumasi (70,000; Ashanti cap.). |
| Elmina. | Gambaga (cap. Northern Territories.) |
| Kintampo. | |
| Cape Coast Castle (28,948). | |

SIERRA LEONE—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Freetown* (34,463 in 1901). | Songotown. |

GAMBIA—

*Bathurst* (8807 in 1901).

MAURITIUS—

*Port Louis* (52,740 in 1901).

SEYCHELLES—

*Victoria.*

ST. HELENA—

*Jamestown.*

ASCENSION—

*Georgetown.*

NORTHERN NIGERIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Zungeru.* | Kano (100,000). |
| Kuka (60,000). | Katsena |
| Yakoba (50,000). | Yola. |
| Gando. | Sokoto. |
| Ilorin. | Kabba. |

BRITISH SOMALILAND—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Berbera* (30,000). | Zeila. |
| Bulhar. | |

EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Mombasa* (25,000). | Lamu. |
| Kismayu. | Naivasha. |
| Kisumu. | |

UGANDA PROTECTORATE—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Entebbe.* | Mengo. |
| Gondokoro. | Wadelai. |

ZANZIBAR PROTECTORATE—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Zanzibar* (60,000). | Chake-chake. |

NORTH-EASTERN RHODESIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Fort Jameson.* | Fife. |
| Abercorn. | |

NORTH-WESTERN RHODESIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Kalomo.* | Lialui. |
| Sesheke. | |

SOUTHERN RHODESIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Salisbury* (1726 in 1904). | Bulawayo (3,840). |
| Umtali. | Gwelo. |
| Hartley. | Victoria. |
| Melsetter. | Enkeldoorn. |
| Wankie. | Gwanda. |

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE—

| | |
|---|---|
| Blantyre (6000). | *Zomba.* |
| Chiromo. | Port Herald. |
| Kotakota. | Fort Johnston. |

BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Serowe* (Khama's cap.). | Palapye. |
| Shoshong. | Gaberones. |
| Francistown. | Molepolole. |
| Kanya. | |

BASUTOLAND—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Maseru* (1300). | Mafeteng. |

SOKOTRA—

*Tamarida.*

EGYPT—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Cairo* (570,062 in 1897). | Alexandria (319,766). |
| Tantah (57,289). | Port Said (42,095). |
| Assiut (Siut, 42,078). | Mansurah (36,131). |
| Zagazig (35,715). | Medinet-el-Fayum (33,069). |
| Damanhur (32,122). | Keneh (27,478). |
| Damietta (31,515). | Ismailia. |
| Mehalla-el-Kubra (31,100). | Assuan. |
| Suez. | |

ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Khartum* (7000). | Omdurman (48,000). |
| Berber. | Dongola. |
| Wadi Halfa. | Suakin. |
| Kassala. | Wad Medani. |
| Sennar. | Kodok. |
| El Obeid (Kordofan). | Wau (Bahr-el-Ghazal). |

ALGERIA—

| | |
|---|---|
| *Algiers* (138,708 in 1901). | Oran (87,801). |
| Constantine (41,138). | Bône (32,288). |
| Tlemçen (22,273). | Sidi-bel-Abbès (24,265). |
| Mostaganem. | Ghadames. |
| Mascara. | Philippeville. |
| Blida. | Batna. |
| Bougie. | Orléansville. |
| Biskra. | Wargla. |
| Gardaia. | El Golea. |

**Tunis—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Tunis* (170,000). | Marsa. |
| Goletta. | Bizerta. |
| Susa. | Monastir. |
| Mehdia. | Sfax. |
| Kairwan. | |

**Senegal—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Dakar* (18,500; cap. French W. Africa). | *Saint Louis* (24,000). |
| Goree (1600). | Rufisque (12,500). |

**French Guinea—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Konakry.* | Boké. |
| Ubréka. | Timbo. |

**Ivory Coast—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Bingerville.* | Grand Bassam. |
| Assinie. | Grand Lahou Elima. |

**Dahomey—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Porto Novo* (50,000). | Grand Popo. |
| Kotonu. | Whydah. |
| Abomey. | Allada. |
| Agoué. | Nikki. |
| Say. | Carnotville. |
| Wangara. | Kwande. |

**French Congo—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Libreville.* | Loango. |
| Franceville. | Brazzaville. |
| Massenia (Bagirmi). | Abeshr (Wadai). |

**Upper Senegal and the Niger—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Kayes. | Segu. |
| *Bammako.* | Bobo-Dioulasso. |
| Timbuctoo. | Niamey. |
| Bafulabé. | Zinder. |

**French Sahara—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Bilma. | Figuig. |
| Twat. | Walata. |
| Agades. | |

**Somali Coast Protectorate—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Jibutil* (15,000). | Obok. |

**Madagascar—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Antananarivo (55,579 in 1901). | Majunga. |
| | Tamatave. |

**Réunion—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *St. Denis* (27,392 in 1901). | St. Pierre (28,885). |
| St. Paul. | St. Louis. |
| Pointe-des-Galets. | St. Benoît. |

**Mayotte and the Comoro Islands—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Sanda. | Mroni. |

**Togoland—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Lome.* | Little Popo. |
| Porto Seguro. | Bagida. |
| Misahöhe. | Bismarckburg. |
| Sansane. | Atakpame. |
| Togo. | Agome Palime. |

**Kamerun—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Duala. | Victoria. |
| *Buea.* | Bibundi. |
| Batanga. | Campo. |

**German South-West Africa—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Windhoek.* | Swakopmund. |
| Gobabis. | Otjimbingue. |
| Keetmanshoop. | Gibeon. |
| Angra Pequena. | |

**German East Africa—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Tanga. | Pangani. |
| Bagamoyo. | *Dar-es-Salaam* (16,000). |
| Kilwa. | Lindi. |
| Mikindani. | Moshi. |
| Kilossa. | Mpapua. |
| Kilimatinde. | Tabora. |
| Ujiji. | Muanza. |
| Bukoba. | Iringa. |
| Langenburg. | |

**Angola—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *São Paulo de Loanda* (15,000). | Cabinda. |
| | Ambriz. |
| Benguella. | Mossamedes. |

**Portuguese East Africa—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Lourenço Marquez. | Inhambane. |
| Sofala. | Beira. |
| Quilimane. | Chinde. |
| Zumbo. | Tete. |
| Sena. | *Mozambique* (5000). |

**Portuguese Guinea—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Bolama.* | Bissao. |

**Cape Verde Islands—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Porto Praia* (21,000). | Porto Grande. |

**Madeira—**

*Funchal* (19,000).

**Prince and St. Thomas Islands—**

| | |
|---|---|
| São Antonio (Prince). | Cidade (St. Thomas). |

**Eritrea—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Massowah (8000). | *Asmara.* |
| Saati. | Keren. |

**Italian Somaliland—**

| | |
|---|---|
| Obbia. | Mogdishu (Magadoxo). |
| Lugh. | Brava. |
| Itala. | Illig. |

**Canary Islands—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Las Palmas* (44,517 in 1900). | Santa Cruz (38,419). |

**Fernando Po—**

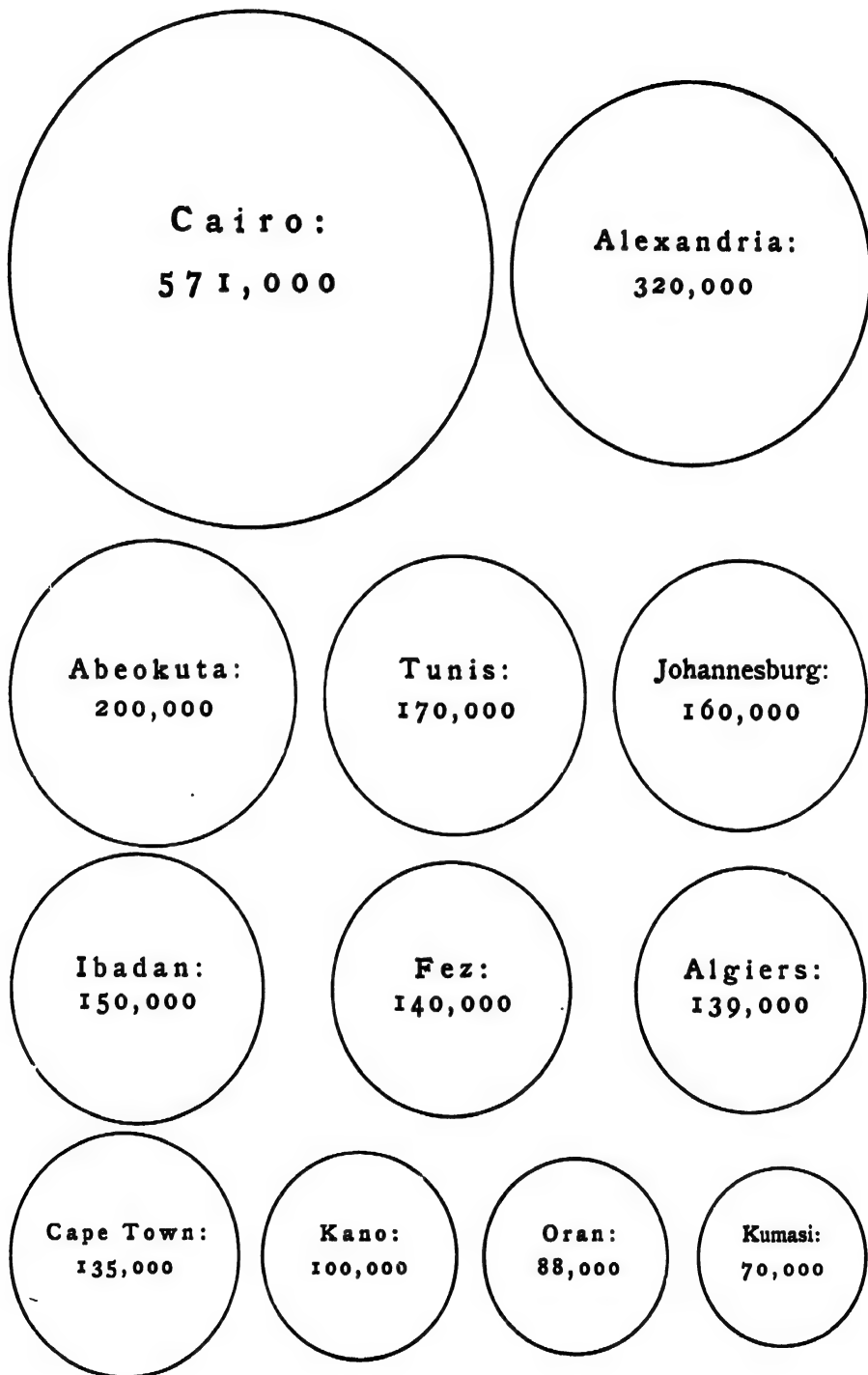
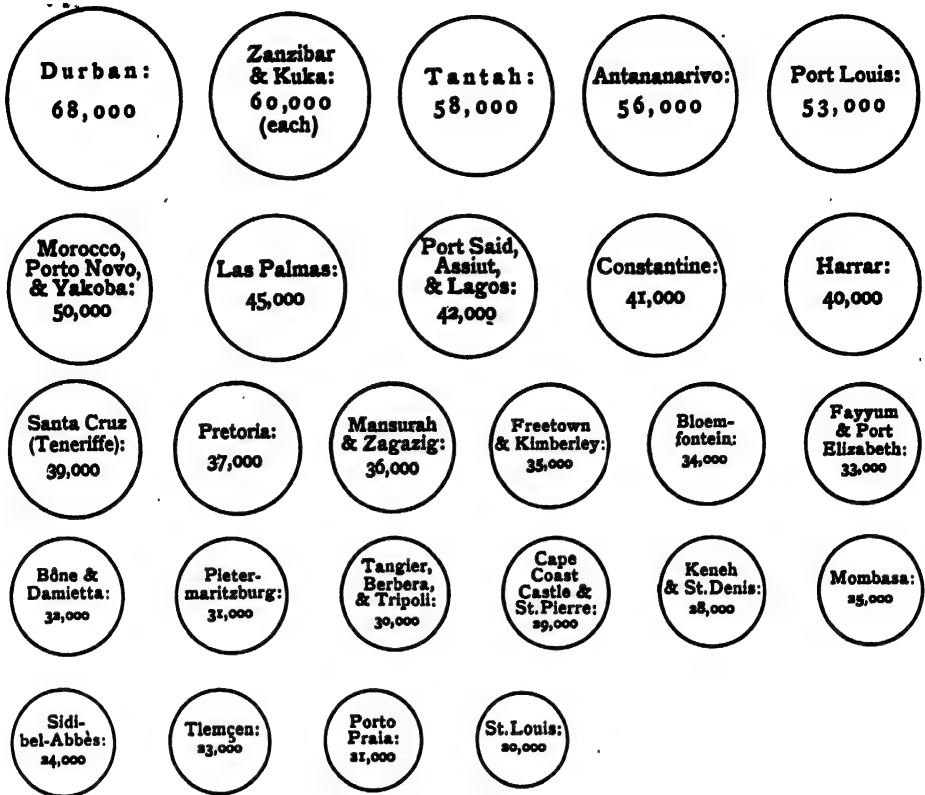
*Santa Isabel.*

**Tripoli—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Tripoli* (30,000). | Benghazi. |
| Murzuk. | Ghat. |

**Congo State—**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Boma.* | Banana. |
| Leopoldville. | Luluaburg. |
| Coquilhatville (Equatorville). | Bangala (New Antwerp). |
| | Matadi. |
| Nyangwe. | Lukunga. |
| Tumba. | Banzyville. |
| Stanley Falls. | Ndolo. |
| Lusambo. | |

COMPARATIVE POPULATIONS OF CHIEF AFRICAN TOWNS

The above circle diagrams represent the relative populations of the principal towns of the African continent. The scale is nine times that used in the corresponding set of diagrams for Asia. In many cases the population given is only an estimate, more or less reliable.

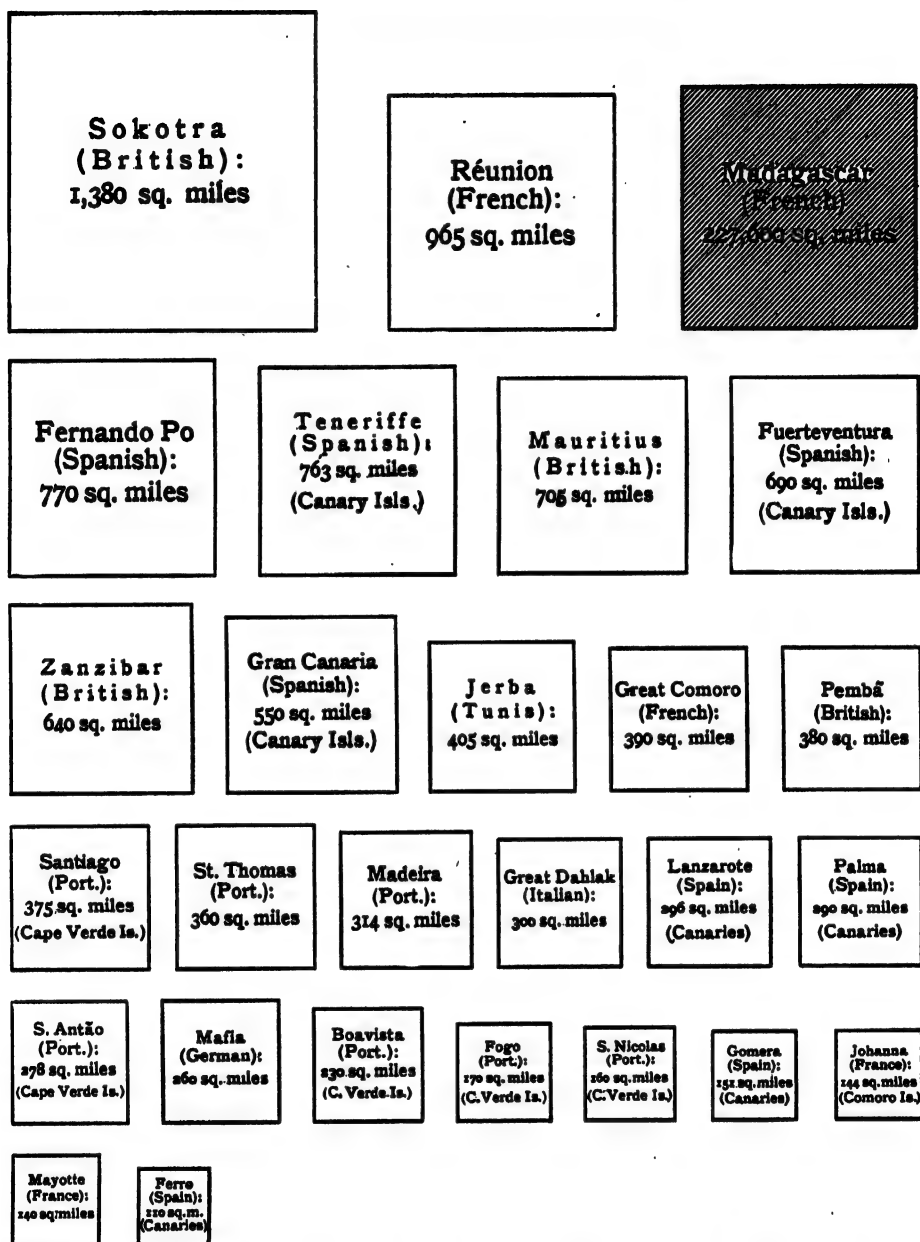
## The Climate of Africa

Africa is pre-eminently the tropical continent. Much the largest part of its surface lies between the tropics, and the extra-tropical parts, in the north and the south, are rather sub-tropical than strictly temperate. The extreme northern part belongs to the same climatic region as the extreme south of Europe, being characterized by considerable warmth and almost rainless summers. The extreme southern part, the sub-continent of South Africa, now mainly under British sway, is climatically the best and most hopeful from the European point of view. In this sub-continent the east is warmer than the west, mainly owing to the nature of the neighbouring ocean currents; and the east differs from the west also in having its rain mainly in summer. On the elevated interior plateaus a considerable degree of cold is experienced at times. There is a practically rainless, more or less desert region around each tropic, the great Sahara in the north and the smaller and less barren Kalahari in the south. The tropical lands, especially on the coast, are usually unhealthy, but the new knowledge regarding malaria and its propagation may enable man to transform them. The following table gives climatic particulars for a large number of places:—

| Stations. | Latitude. | Height above Sea-level (in Feet). | Mean Annual Temp. (° F.). | Mean Temp. of Warmest Month. | Mean Temp. of Coldest Month. | Mean Annual Rainfall (Inches). |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NORTH TEMPERATE AFRICA— | | | | | | |
| Tunis | 36° 48′ N. | — | 67.3 | 81.1 | 52.3 | 19 |
| Algiers | 36° 47′ N. | — | 64.6 | 78.1 | 54 | 26.6 |
| Tangier | 35° 47′ N. | 200 | 64 | 75.6 | 55.4 | 31.8 |
| Biskra | 34° 51′ N. | 1340 | 68.5 | 90 | 52 | 7.8 |
| Tripoli | 32° 54′ N. | — | 69.1 | 80.8 | 57.6 | 13.8 |
| Funchal | 32° 37′ N. | — | 65.5 | 72.7 | 59.7 | 26.6 |
| Morocco | 31° 37′ N. | 1610 | 71 | — | — | — |
| Alexandria | 31° 13′ N. | — | 69 | 79 | 25.9 | 8.2 |
| El Golea | 30° 32′ N. | 475 | 75.7 | 98 | 21 | — |
| Cairo | 30° 2′ N. | — | 70.3 | 84.4 | 53.4 | 1.2 |
| Santa Cruz de Teneriffe | 28° 28′ N. | 130 | 65.8 | 79 | 60 | 12 |

| Stations. | Latitude. | Height above Sea-level (in Feet). | Mean Annual Temp. (° F.). | Mean Temp. of Warmest Month. | Mean Temp. of Coldest Month. | Mean Annual Rainfall (Inches). |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **TROPICAL AFRICA (NORTH OF EQUATOR)—** | | | | | | |
| Wadi Halfa | 21° 54′ N. | — | 79 | 93 | 61 | 0 (almost). |
| St. Louis | 16° 1′ N. | — | 74.1 | 82 | 70.3 | 16.5 |
| Khartum | 15° 37′ N. | 1270 | 84 | 93 | 71 | — |
| Massowah | 15° 36′ N. | — | 86.5 | 94.6 | 78.1 | 8.7 |
| Praia | 14° 54′ N. | — | 76.1 | 79.7 | 72 | — |
| Bathurst | 13° 24′ N. | — | 77 | 79.7 | 71.9 | 51.9 |
| Gondar | 12° 36′ N. | 4165 | 66.2 | — | — | 43.9 |
| Freetown | 8° 30′ N. | — | 81.8 | — | — | 125.8 |
| Lagos | 6° 28′ N. | — | 79.9 | — | — | 68.6 |
| Accra | 5° 32′ N. | — | 76 | — | — | 28.9 |
| Grand Bassam | — | — | 82.2 | — | — | 246 |
| Old Calabar | 5° N. | — | 81.6 | 85.5 | 77.2 | 129 |
| Akassa | 4° 19′ N. | — | 77.9 | — | — | 142.5 |
| Kamerun | 4° 2′ N. | 40 | 77.6 | 79.7 | 74.7 | 158.5 |
| Bibundi | — | — | — | — | — | 365.6 |
| Wadelai | 2° 47′ N. | 2210 | — | — | — | 41.8 |
| Fernando Po | 3° 46′ N. | — | 78.1 | 81.9 | 76.4 | 99.7 |
| Gabun | — | — | 76.1 | 77.7 | 72.3 | 88.6 |
| **TROPICAL AFRICA (SOUTH OF EQUATOR)—** | | | | | | |
| Tanganyika | 4° S. | 2660 | 76.6 | — | — | 49.5 |
| Mombasa | 4° 4′ S. | 60 | 79.6 | 82.4 | 75.2 | 43.1 |
| Tabora | 5° 1′ S. | — | — | — | — | 32 |
| Tanga | 5° 6′ S. | — | — | — | — | 61.9 |
| Chinchocho | 5° 10′ S. | — | 75.9 | 79.3 | 71.2 | 42.2 |
| Vivi | 5° 49′ S. | 374 | 77.2 | 79.5 | 70.5 | 40.6 |
| Boma | 5° 46′ S. | — | 77.6 | 80.8 | 73 | — |
| Luluaburg | 5° 57′ S. | 2035 | 75.7 | 76.1 | 75.2 | 57.4 |
| Zanzibar | 6° 10′ S. | — | 79.3 | 82.2 | 77 | 56.2 |
| Dar-es-Salaam | 6° 50′ S. | — | — | — | — | 44.6 |
| Loanda | 8° 48′ S. | — | 74.5 | 79.2 | 67.8 | 12.5 |
| Malanshe | 9° 30′ S. | 3840 | 68 | 69.8 | 64.4 | — |
| Mozambique | 15° 2′ S. | — | 80.4 | — | — | 21.5 |
| Zomba | 15° 20′ S. | 3130 | 67.5 | — | — | 55.7 |
| Majunga | 15° 45′ S. | — | — | — | — | 63.7 |
| Lauderdale | 16° 2′ S. | 2850 | 69.9 | — | — | 116.5 |
| Tete | — | 210 | 79.5 | 85 | 73 | 33.3 |
| Salisbury | 17° 50′ S. | 4700 | 65.5 | — | — | 36.5 |
| Tamatave | 18° 10′ S. | — | 75.4 | — | — | 122.9 |
| Antananarivo | 18° 55′ S. | 4590 | 64.4 | 68.5 | 58.1 | 52.3 |
| Beira | — | — | 75.6 | — | — | 79.2 |
| Port Louis | 20° 15′ S. | — | 74.2 | 79 | 68.9 | — |
| Walfish Bay | 23° S. | — | — | — | — | .25 |
| Rehoboth | 23° 20′ S. | 4760 | 64.9 | 76.5 | 49.1 | 11 |
| **SOUTH TEMPERATE AFRICA—** | | | | | | |
| Pretoria | 25° 45′ S. | 4460 | 66.9 | 73.6 | 58.8 | 26.3 |
| Delagoa Bay | 26° S. | — | 73 | 78.3 | 66.6 | 20.6 |
| Kimberley | 28° 43′ S. | 4040 | 66.4 | 78.8 | 51.8 | 17.9 |
| Bloemfontein | 29° 7′ S. | 4520 | 61.6 | 72.7 | 45.7 | 21.3 |
| Maritzburg | 29° 46′ S. | 2090 | 64.9 | 71.8 | 55.7 | 29.3 |
| Durban | 30° 4′ S. | 260 | 68.4 | 74.1 | 62.4 | 39.5 |
| Graaff Reinet | 32° 16′ S. | 2500 | 64 | 74 | 52.3 | 15 |
| East London | 33° S. | 20 | 64.9 | 70.5 | 58.4 | 26.2 |
| Cape Town | 33° 56′ S. | 40 | 61.3 | 69.1 | 54.1 | 25 |
| Port Elizabeth | 33° 58′ S. | 180 | 63 | 70 | 56.7 | 20.9 |
| Mossel Bay | 34° 10′ S. | 105 | 63.6 | 70.7 | 57.2 | 17.4 |

The corresponding particulars for Liverpool are as follows:—Mean annual temperature, 50.3° F.; mean temperature of warmest month (August), 61.2° F.; mean temperature of coldest month (January), 41.2° F.; mean annual rainfall, 30.3 inches.

## The Principal Islands of Africa

The above square diagrams show the relative areas of the chief islands of Africa. Madagascar is on the same scale as that already used for the islands of Asia, but for the others a scale 225 times as large has been used.

Among African islands not particularized above, the following are worthy of mention:—

Kerkenna Islands (Tunis), Alhucemas and other small Spanish islands close to Morocco, St. Vincent, Sal, Maio, and other Cape Verde Islands (Portuguese), Goree (Senegal), St. Mary (Gambia), Bissagos Islands (Portuguese Guinea), Los Islands (French Guinea), Sherbro (Sierra Leone), Lagos (Lagos), Prince (Portuguese), Annobon (Spanish), Ascension, St. Helena, and Tristan da Cunha (British), Corisco (Spanish), Possession, Roast Beef, and other islets off coast of German South-west Africa, Dassen and Robben (Cape Colony), Inyak, Bazaruto, Angosha, Ibo, and Querimba (Portuguese East Africa), Nossi-bé and St. Mary (Madagascar), Seychelles and numerous other islands of Indian Ocean, The Brothers and Abd-ul-Kuri (near Sokotra), Perim (under Aden), and islands of the Red Sea.

## The Structure of Africa

I. **Coastal Plains**; mostly narrow, except about river-mouths.

II. **The Atlas System**; really belonging to one system with Alps, Apennines, and Sierra Nevada

- A. *Tunisian Atlas.*
- B. *Algerian Atlas*—
  1. The Tell Atlas or Little Atlas.
  2. The Plateau of the Shotts; 2600–3500 feet.
  3. The Great Atlas; Sheliah (in Jebel Aures), 7640 feet.
- C. *Moroccan Atlas*—
  1. The Mountains of Er-Rif (Coast Atlas).
  2. The Middle Atlas.
  3. The Great Atlas: Jebel Aiashi, 14,760 feet.
  4. The Anti-Atlas.
  5. The Jebel Bani.

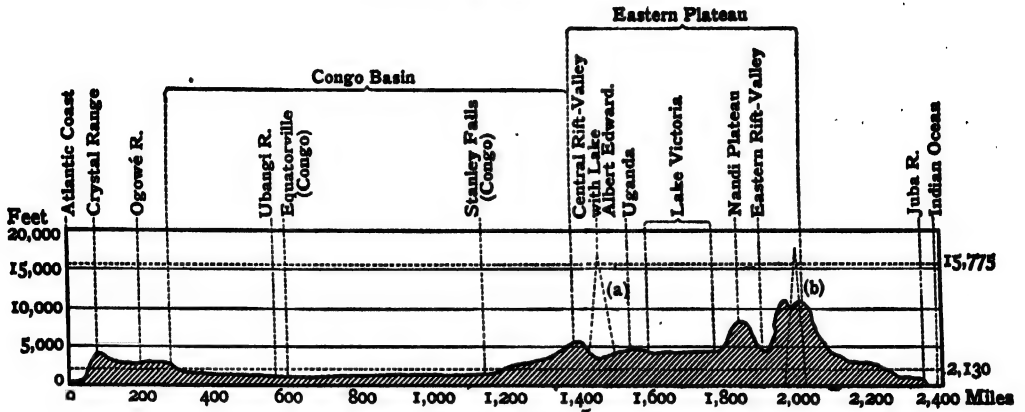
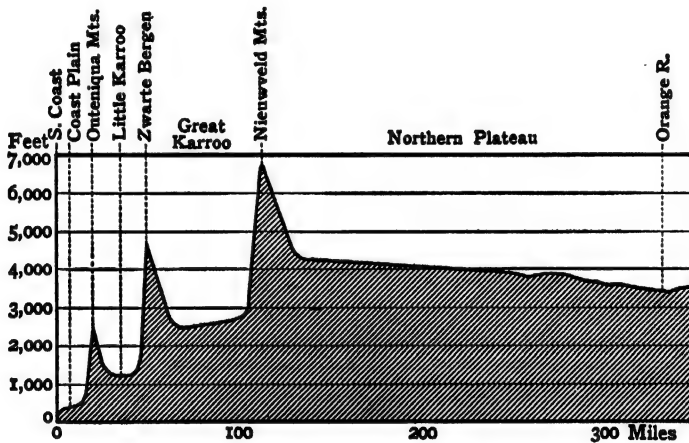
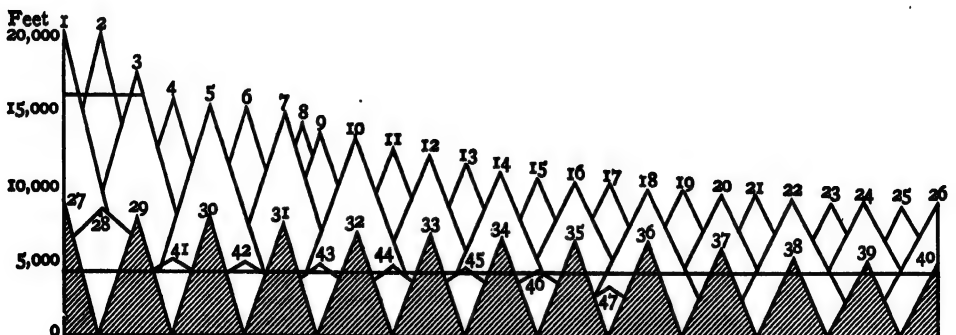
III. **The Plateaus of the South and East**; rarely under 2000 feet; mean height, 3500 feet.

- A. *The Abyssinian Plateau*: comprising Simen Highlands (Ras Dashan, 15,160 feet), Gojam Highlands, &c.; little below 5000 feet.
- B. *The East African Plateau*—
  1. Central Rift-Valley (4900 feet in Lake Kivu): Mount Mfumbiro (13,120 feet).
  2. Eastern Rift-Valley (6300 feet in Lake Naivasha): Rungwe (10,170 feet).
  3. Central Plateau (up to 10,000 feet; 3800 in Lake Victoria): Elgon (14,040 feet).
  4. Ruwenzori Mountains (16,800 feet), Kenia (17,200 feet), Kilimanjaro (19,710 feet), Meru (15,520 feet), Livingstone Mountains (11,150 feet), Milanji (9840 feet), &c.
- C. *The South African Plateau*—
  1. Congo-Zambesi Divide (4740 feet in Lake Dilolo) and Plateau of Bihe (5500 feet).
  2. Zambesi Valley.
  3. Ngami Basin (Lake Ngami, 2950 feet) and Kalahari Desert.
  4. Matoppo Hills (4590 feet) and Mount Hampden (5000 feet).
  5. Plateau of German South-West Africa: Omatakoberg (8790 feet), Awas Mountains, Karas Mountains.
  6. Inner Plateau of South Africa (Pretoria, 4462 feet): Witwatersrand, Magaliesberg, Northern Drakenberg (Mauchberg, 8725 feet), Karree Mountains, &c.
  7. Roggeveld, Nieuwveld, Sneeuwberg (Compass Berg, 8980 feet), Stormberg, Drakenberg (Mont-aux-Sources, 11,975 feet, Cathkin Peak, 10,365 feet, Giant's Peak, 9645 feet), Maluti Mountains (Machacham, 11,000 feet); Tandtjies and Great Winterberg (7840 feet).
  8. Great Karroo (2500–3000 feet): Eland Mountains (4890 feet) and Great Tafelberg (4720 feet).
  9. Zwartebergen (Seven Weeks Poort, 7625 feet), Baviaanskloof, and Cockscomb (5720 feet).
  10. Little Karroo.
  11. Lange Bergen, Outeniqua Mountains, &c.: Brookbosch, 5000 feet.
  12. Western Ranges of Cape Colony: Olifant Mountains (Great Winterhoek, 6900 feet) and Cedar Mountains (Sneeuwkop, 6335 feet).

IV. **The Plains of the North and West**; generally below 2000 feet.

- A. *The Sahara*—
  1. Red Sea Coast Range (Jebel Soturba, 6890 feet).
  2. Arabian and Nubian Deserts.
  3. Nile Valley.
  4. Libyan Desert (1300 feet).
  5. Central Highlands: Jebel Marra (6560 feet), Tarso Range in Tibesti (Tusidde, 8860 feet), &c.
  6. Central Sahara: Ahaggar Mountains (6560 feet), Timge Mountains (Asben or Air, 5090 feet).
  7. Western Sahara, including El-Juf depression, Igidi Desert, &c.
- B. *The Sudan*—
  1. Western Sudan: Futa Jallon, 4920 feet.
  2. Central Sudan: Kamerun Mountains (Albertspitze, 13,370 feet) and Adamawa Plateau (Gendero Mountains, 8860 feet): Lake Chad (780 feet).
  3. Eastern Sudan (Khartum, 1260 feet).
- C. *The Congo Basin*; mostly 1200–1300 feet: Serra do Cristal, 4500 feet.

V. **Madagascar**: highest peak, Tsiafajavona (8790 feet), in Ankaratra Mountains.

## Vertical Sections of Africa

The above diagram is a rough vertical section of Africa from east to west along the equator. The Ruwenzori Mountains, somewhat to the north, and Mount Kenia, somewhat to the south, are shown by unshaded parts (a) and (b) respectively. The scales, vertical and horizontal, are the same as in the corresponding diagram for Asia The lower dotted horizontal line is at the average height of the continent, the upper at the height of Mont Blanc the highest summit of Europe.

The above diagram is a rough vertical section of South Africa from Knysna on the south coast northwards through Beaufort West to the Orange River. Both scales, vertical and horizontal, are five times as large as in the preceding section.

The above diagram shows the relative height of the principal mountain summits of the African continent. The

upper horizontal line is at the height of Mont Blanc, and the lower at the height of Ben Nevis. Ruwenzori is now known to be only about 16,800 feet high. Following is the key to the numbering of the peaks:—

1. Ruwenzori Mts. (Congo State).
2. Kilimanjaro (German East Africa).
3. Kenia (British East Africa).
4. Meru (German East Africa).
5. Ras Dashan (Abyssinia).
6. Buahit (Abyssinia).
7. Jebel Aiashi (Moroccan Atlas).
8. Elgon (Uganda).
9. Albertspitze (Kamerun Mts., Kamerun).
10. Mfumbiro or Kirunga (Congo State).
11. Pico de Teyde (Teneriffe, Canary Islands).
12. Mont-aux-Sources (Drakenberg; Natal, Basutoland, and O. R. C.).
13. Livingstone Mts. (German East Africa).
14. Machacham (Maluti Mts., Basutoland).
15. Cathkin Peak or Champagne Castle (Drakenberg; Natal and Basutoland).
16. Rungwe (German East Africa).
17. Piton des Neiges (Réunion).
18. Milanji (Central Africa Protectorate).
19. Giant's Peak (Drakenberg; Natal and Basutoland).
20. Gan Libash (British Somaliland).
21. Clarence Peak (Fernando Po).
22. Compass Berg (Sneeuwbergen, Cape Colony).
23. Tusidde (Tibesti Mts., Sahara).
24. Gendero Mts. (Adamawa Highland, Kamerun).
25. Omatakoberg (German South-West Africa).
26. Tsiafajavona (Madagascar).
27. Mauchberg (Northern Drakenberg, Transvaal).
28. Sheliyah (Jebel Aures, Algerian Atlas).
29. Great Winterberg (Cape Colony).
30. Seven Weeks Poort (Zwartebergen, Cape Colony).
31. Namuli (Portuguese East Africa).
32. Great Winterhoek (Olifant Mts., Cape Colony).
33. Jebel Soturba (Egypt).
34. Jebel Marra (Darfur, Anglo-Egyptian Sudan).
35. Ahaggar Mts. (Sahara).
36. Sneeuwkop (Cedar Mts., Cape Colony).
37. Cockscomb Mt. (Cape Colony).
38. Timge Mts. (Asben, Sahara).
39. Mt. Hampden (Rhodesia).
40. Brookbosch (Cape Colony).
41. Doornberg (Cape Colony).
42. Futa Jallon (Senegambia).
43. Elandsbergen (Cape Colony).
44. Karreebergen (Cape Colony).
45. Tafelberg (Cape Colony).
46. Matoppo Hills (Rhodesia).
47. Table Mt. (Cape Colony).

## Principal Rivers of Africa

A. Flowing to the Mediterranean—

- Nile (3700 miles; mainly in Uganda, Egyptian Sudan, and Egypt).
  - Semliki (left).
  - Bahr-el-Ghazal (left).
  - Sobat (right).
  - Blue Nile (right).
  - Atbara (right).
    - Takazze (right).
- Mejerda (300 miles; Tunis).
- Sheliff (400 miles; Algeria).
- Muluya (350 miles; Morocco).

B. Flowing to the Atlantic Ocean—

- Sebu, Om-er-Rebiah, Tensift, Sus, Asaka, Draa — All in Morocco.
- Senegal (900 miles; Senegambia and Senegal).
  - Falémé (left).
- Gambia (600 miles; chiefly in Gambia).
- Casamance (in Senegambia).
- Cacheo, Grande and Geba — Portuguese Guinea.
- Scarcies, Rokelle — Sierra Leone.
- St. Paul (in Liberia).
- Cavally (separates Liberia from Ivory Coast).
- Sassandra, Bandama (Lahu), Komoe — Ivory Coast.
- Tanu, Ankobra — Gold Coast.
- Volta (400 miles; partly separates Gold Coast from Togoland).
- Niger (2600 miles; upper and middle course in French W. Africa, lower course in Nigeria).
  - Bakhoi (right).
  - Gulbin-Sokoto (left).
  - Benue (850 miles; left).
- Cross (in Kamerun and Nigeria).
- Sanaga (Lom; in Kamerun).
- Campo (partly separating Kamerun from Rio Muni).
- Ogowé (550 miles; in French Congo).
- Congo (2900 miles; Congo State, but partly separating it from French Congo, Rhodesia, and Angola)
  - Lualaba (left).
  - Lukuga (right).
  - Lowa (right).
  - Lomami (Boloko; left).
  - Aruwimi (right; 800 miles).
  - Rubi (right).
  - Mongalla (right).
  - Lulongo (left).
  - Ruki (left).
  - Ubangi (Welle; right; 1500 miles).
  - Sanga (right).
  - Likuala (right).
  - Kassai (Kwa; left; 1200 miles).
    - Lulua (right).
    - Sankuru (right).
    - Loange (left).
    - Kwango (left).
    - Mfini (right).
- Coanza (400 miles; in Angola).
  - Lucalla (right).

B. FLOWING TO THE ATLANTIC OCEAN (*Continued*)—

Cunene (750 miles; separates Angola from German S.W. Africa).
Orange (1160 miles; in Cape Colony, partly north frontier).
Caledon (right).
Vaal (right; 700 miles).
Hart (right).
Riet (with Modder; left).
Ongar (left).
Hartebeest (left).
Hygap (Molopo; right).
Great Fish (Aub; right).
Olifants, Berg } Cape Colony.

C. FLOWING SOUTH—

Breede, Gauritz, Gamtoos, Sunday, Great Fish } All in Cape Colony.

D. FLOWING TO THE INDIAN OCEAN—

Buffalo, Kei., St. John (Umzimvubu), Umzimkulu } All in Cape Colony; last frontier.
Umkomanzi, Umgeni, Tugela (300 miles), Buffalo (left), Umhlatoosi, Umvolosi } All in Natal.
Maputa (Usuta + Pongola), Manhissa (Komati + Crocodile) } Delagoa Bay.
Limpopo (1000 miles; partly frontier between Rhodesia and Transvaal).
Marico (left).
Pongola (right).
Lotsani (left).
Magalaqueen (right).
Macloutsie (left).
Tuli (with Shashi; left).
Sand (right).
Bubye (left).
Wanetze (left).
Olifants (right; 450 miles).
Shengani (left).
Sabi (500 miles), Busi, Pungwe (300 miles) } Portuguese East Africa.
Zambesi (1700 miles; in Angola, Rhodesia, Portuguese East Africa).
Kabompo (left).
Lungo-Bungo (right).
Chobe (right).
Guay (with Shangani; right).
Sanyati (right).
Kafue (left).
Loangwa (left).
Mazoe (right).
Shiré (left; 380 miles).
Lukugu, Ligonya, Mluli (Angosha), Lurio, Mtepwesi } All in Portuguese E. Africa.
Rovuma (350 miles; separates German from Portuguese E. Africa).
Lujanda (right).
Rufiji (with Ruaha), Kingani, Wami, Pangani, Umba } German E. Africa (last frontier).
Sabaki, Tana (500 miles) } British East Africa.
Juba (separates British E. Africa from Italian Somaliland).

E. FLOWING TO THE RED SEA—

Baraka.

F. FLOWING TO LAKES WITH OUTLET—

Kagera (to Victoria Nyanza).
Ruchuru (to Albert Edward Nyanza).
Malagarazi (to Tanganyika).

G. FLOWING TO LAKE CHAD—

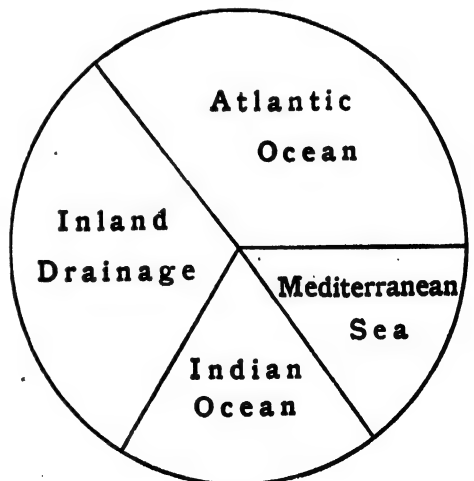
Shari (with Logon from left; German-French frontier).
Komadugu-Waube (French-British frontier).
Bahr-el-Ghazal (wady).

H. NGAMI BASIN—

Kubango (Okavango, Tioge; inflowing; Angola and Bechuanaland).
Zuga (Botletle; outflowing; Bechuanaland).

I. OTHERS OF INLAND DRAINAGE—

Webi Shebeli (Abyssinian and Italian Somaliland)

DISTRIBUTION OF THE DRAINAGE OF AFRICA

## The Principal Rivers of Africa

### Comparative Lengths

Nile: 3,700 miles

Congo: 2,900 miles

Niger: 2,600 miles

Zambesi: 1,700 miles

Orange: 1,160 miles

Mejerda: 300 miles

Limpopo: 1,000 miles

Pungwe: 300 miles

Senegal: 900 miles

Muluya: 350 miles

Cunene: 750 miles

Rovuma: 350 miles

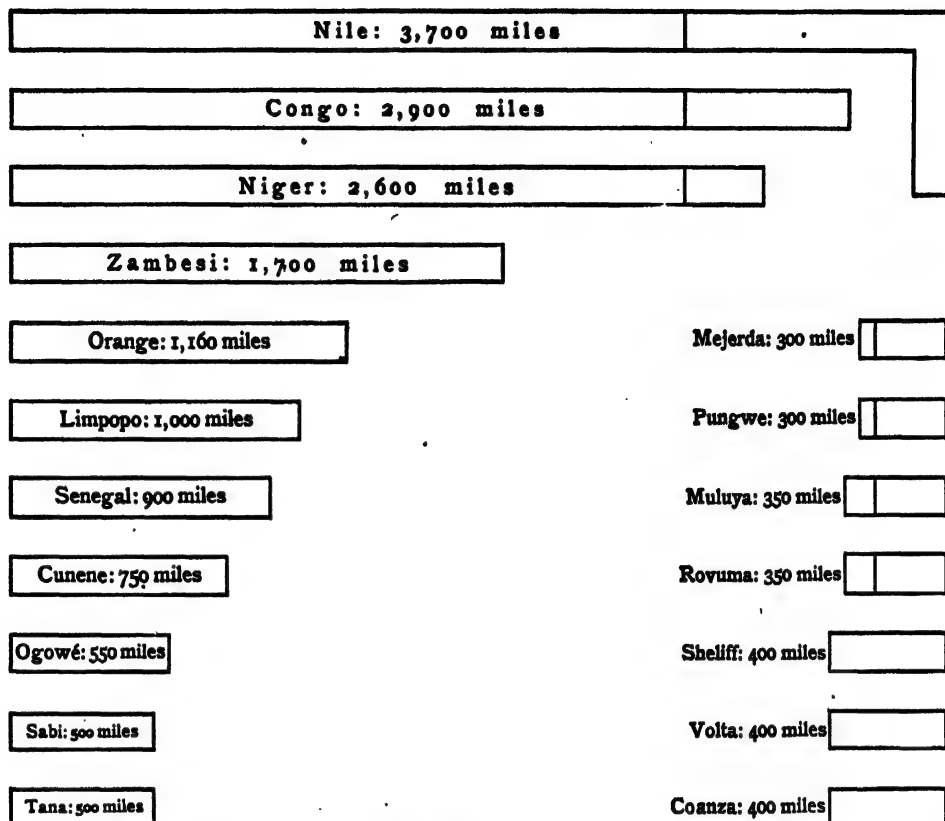
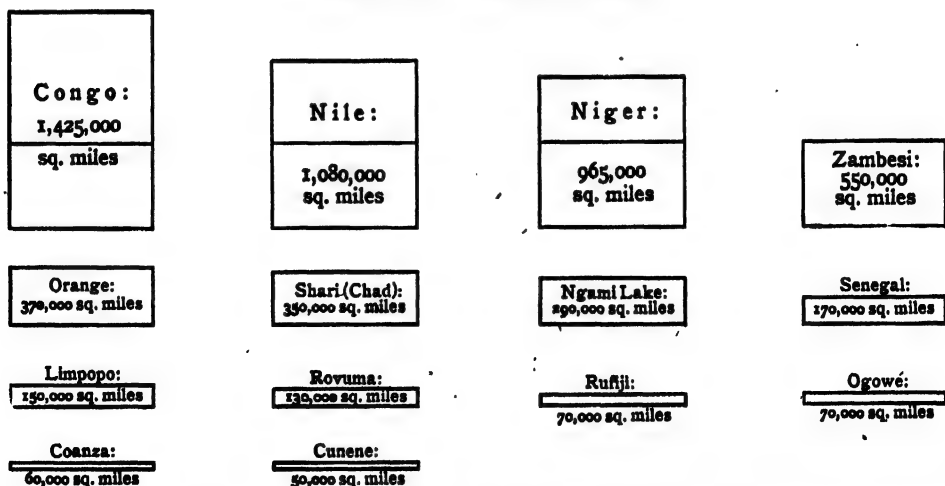
Ogowé: 550 miles

Sheliff: 400 miles

Sabi: 500 miles

Volta: 400 miles

Tana: 500 miles

Coanza: 400 miles

The above series of diagrams shows the relative lengths of the chief African rivers. The length of the Volga is marked off from the three longest, and the length of the Thames from the four shortest.

The above series of diagrams shows the relative extent of basin of the principal African rivers. The drainage area of the Volga is marked off from the three largest.

## The Principal Lakes of Africa

Victoria Nyanza: 26,440 sq. miles

Tanganyika: 13,560 sq. miles

Chad: 10,400 sq. miles

Nyassa: 10,200 sq. miles

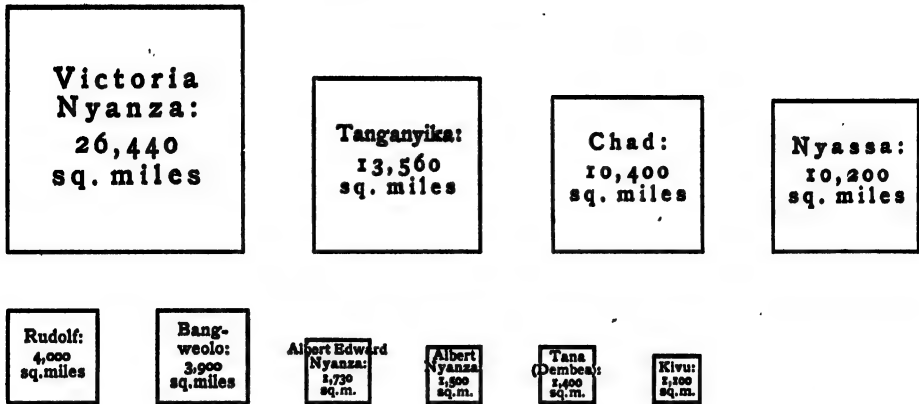
Rudolf: 4,000 sq.miles

Bangweolo: 3,900 sq.miles

Albert Edward Nyanza: 1,730 sq.m.

Albert Nyanza: 1,500 sq.m.

Tana (Dembea): 1,400 sq.m.

Kivu: 1,100 sq.m.

The above square diagrams represent the relative areas of some of the principal lakes of the African continent. The scale is four times that for the lakes of Asia (Vol. II).

Other African lakes are: Stefanie, Sugota, Baringo, Naivasha, &c., in British East Africa; Eyassi, Manyara, and Rikwa, in German East Africa; Shirwa, on border of Portuguese East Africa and British Central Africa; Mweru, on border of Rhodesia and Congo State; Leopold II and Mantumba, in Congo State; Abai, Queen Margherita, &c., in Abyssinia; the Shotts of Algeria and Tunis; Alaotra, &c., in Madagascar; and coast lagoons (Egypt, West Africa, &c.).

## The Economic Plants of Africa Indigenous and Introduced

I. Useful Palms—

Date-Palm (*Phœnix dactylifera*): Nile Valley and Saharan Oases.
Doum-Palm (*Hyphæne thebaica*): North-east Africa (Upper Egypt, &c.).
Oil-Palm (*Elæis guineensis*), yielding palm-oil and palm-kernels: Guinea Coast and Congo Lands.
Cocoanut-Palm (*Cocos nucifera*): East Coast, Mauritius, Senegal, &c.
Wine-Palm (*Raphia vinifera*): Guinea Coast.
Raphia-Palm (*Raphia ruffia*): Madagascar.
Piassava-Palm (*Leopoldinia Piassaba*): Congo Basin, &c.
Deleb-Palm (*Borassus flabelliformis*): E. Africa, &c.

II. Cultivated Cereals—

Sorghum, Durra, or Kaffir Corn (*Sorghum vulgare*): Sudan southwards.
Other Millets, such as Duchn (*Penicillaria spicata*), *Panicum*, *Eleusine*.
Maize (mealies): Egypt to S. Africa.
Wheat: Egypt, Algeria, Abyssinia, British S. Africa, &c.
Barley: Atlas Lands, &c.
Oats: British S. Africa, &c.
Rice: Madagascar, Egypt, parts of Central Africa, Senegal, &c.

III. Other Food-Plants—

Sugar-Cane: Mauritius, Réunion, Egypt, Natal, &c.
Coffee (Arabian and Liberian): S. Abyssinia, Liberia, Nyasaland, Congo Lands, &c.
Cocoa: Kamerun, Congo Lands, Madagascar, &c.
Tea: Natal, &c.
Ground-Nut (*Arachis hypogæa*): especially Guinea Coast.
Bambarra Ground-Nut (*Voandzeia subterranea*): largely in East.
Vine (for wine): Algeria and Cape Colony.
Beans: Egypt, Morocco, &c.
Olives (for oil): Tunis and neighbouring lands.
Cloves: Zanzibar.
Chillies: Zanzibar.
Kola-Nut (*Sterculia acuminata*): West Tropical Africa.
Yam (*Dioscorea*): Tropical W. Africa.
Tapioca, Cassava, Manioc (*Manihot utilissima*): Guinea Coast, Islands of Indian Ocean, &c.
Ginger: W. Africa.
Bananas and Plantain: Guinea Coast and other parts of Tropical Africa, also Canary Islands.
Chick-Pea (*Cicer arietinum*): Morocco, &c.
Pigeon-Pea (*Cajanus indicus*): Congo Lands, &c.
Vanilla: Mauritius, Réunion, Zanzibar, Madagascar, and parts of mainland.
Shea Butter (*Bassia Parkii*): W. Africa.
Sweet-Potato (*Batatas edulis*): various parts of Tropical Africa.
Kaffir-Bread (*Encephalartos Caffer*): S. Africa.
Fruits and Vegetables: Algeria, Egypt, Cape Colony, &c.

IV. Useful Trees (other than Palms)—

Cedar: Atlas Lands.
Baobab (*Adansonia digitata*): the savanna lands of Tropical Africa.
Bamboo.
Banyan and other species of *Ficus*: Central and Western Africa.

IV. USEFUL TREES (OTHER THAN PALMS)—(*Cont.*)

*Pistacia atlantica*, yielding mastic: Atlas Lands.
Carob-Tree (*Ceratonia Siliqua*): North Coast.
African Mahogany (*Khaya senegalensis*): Guinea Coast.
Ebony (*Diospyros* species and other trees): W. Africa, Madagascar, Mauritius, &c.
Camwood (*Baphia nitida*): Guinea Coast.
African Oak or Teak (*Oldfieldia africana*): W. Africa.
Cork-Oak: Algeria and Tunis.
Stinkwood (*Ocotea bullata*): chiefly Natal.
Sneezewood (*Ptæroxylon obliquum*): S. Africa.
Yellow-wood (species of *Podocarpus*): S. Africa.
Mlanje Cedar (*Widdringtonia Whytei*): S. Africa.
Australian Wattles: introduced in Cape Colony, Natal, &c.

V. OTHER VEGETABLE PRODUCTS—

Cotton: Egypt, W. Africa, Madagascar, &c.
Tobacco: Algeria, Central Africa, Transvaal, Madagascar, &c.
Indigo: Tropical Africa.
Rubber (especially from species of *Landolphia* and *Ficus*): forests of Guinea Coast and Congo Lands.
Gum-Arabic: Senegal, Sudan, &c.
Gum-Copal: especially E. Africa.
Orchil (*Roccella tinctoria*): Tropical Africa.
Alfa or Esparto Grass (*Macrochloa tenacissima*): North Coast Lands.
Castor-Beans: Senegal, &c.
Anatta: Guinea Lands, &c.
Sesamum: Mozambique and other Tropical Lands.
Papyrus: Nile Valley, &c.
Flax: Egypt and other Northern Lands.
Strophanthus: a drug from British Central Africa.

## The Minerals of Africa

| Minerals. | Where Found. |
|---|---|
| Gold ... | Transvaal, Gold Coast, Madagascar, &c. |
| Silver ... | Transvaal, &c. |
| Copper ... | Cape Colony (W.), German S. W. Africa, Algeria, Congo Lands, Madagascar, &c. |
| Iron ... | British S. Africa, Atlas Lands, Abyssinia, Madagascar, &c. |
| Zinc ... | Algeria, Tunis, Transvaal, &c. |
| Lead ... | Tunis, Transvaal, &c. |
| Tin ... | Swaziland, &c. |
| Coal ... | British S. Africa, &c. |
| Petroleum ... | Algeria, Angola, Cape Colony, Natal, &c. |
| Diamonds ... | Cape Colony (Kimberley), Orange Free State, Transvaal. |
| Phosphates | Algeria, Tunis, &c. |
| Salt ... | Sahara, &c. |

Also plumbago, antimony, quicksilver, nickel, manganese, asbestos, mica, sulphur, limestone, marble, kaolin, nitrates, &c.

## Currency

EGYPT—

### A. MONEY OF ACCOUNT

1 Egyptian Pound = 100 Piastres.
1 Piastre = 10 Ochr'el-guerch.

The piastre is not now used in accounts.

### B. COINS

| Coins. | Fineness. | £ | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Gold—* | | | | |
| Pound ... | ... .875 ... | 1 | 0 | 3.77 |
| [50 Piastres ... | ... .875 ... | 0 | 10 | 1.88 |
| 20 Piastres ... | ... .875 ... | 0 | 4 | 0.75 |
| 10 Piastres ... | ... .875 ... | 0 | 2 | 0.38 |
| 5 Piastres ... | ... .875 ... | 0 | 1 | 0.19] |
| *Silver—* | | | | |
| 20 Piastres ... | ... .833 ... | 0 | 4 | 0.75 |
| 10 Piastres ... | ... .833 ... | 0 | 2 | 0.38 |
| 5 Piastres ... | ... .833 ... | 0 | 1 | 0.19 |
| 2 Piastres ... | ... .833 ... | 0 | 0 | 4.88 |
| 1 Piastre ... | ... .833 ... | 0 | 0 | 2.44 |
| [½ Piastre ... | ... .833 ... | 0 | 0 | 1.22 |
| ¼ Piastre ... | ... .833 ... | 0 | 0 | 0.61] |
| *Nickel—* | | | | |
| 5 Ochr'el-guerch ... | — ... | 0 | 0 | 1.22 |
| 2 Ochr'el-guerch ... | — ... | 0 | 0 | 0.49 |
| 1 Ochr'el-guerch ... | — ... | 0 | 0 | 0.24 |
| *Bronze—* | | | | |
| ½ Ochr'el-guerch ... | — ... | 0 | 0 | 0.12 |
| ¼ Ochr'el-guerch ... | — ... | 0 | 0 | 0.06 |

(Sterling Value.)

The weight of the *Egyptian pound* (written £E) is 131.175 grains. Its official value is £1, 0*s.* 6$\frac{1}{8}$*d.* sterling, but its actual sterling value, gold for gold, is as in the above table.

The nickel coins are made of an alloy consisting of 75% copper and 25% nickel. The bronze alloy has the composition: copper, 5; tin, 4; zinc, 1.

Square brackets enclose coins of minor importance.

Silver is a legal tender up to £E2; nickel and bronze up to 10 piastres. The gold standard and the present coins were introduced in 1885. Before that date the standard was silver, and accounts were kept in piastres of forty paras.

TRIPOLI—

1 Mahbub = 20 Piastres.
1 Piastre = 40 Paras.

The *piastre* and *para* are those of the Turkish Empire.

TUNIS AND ALGERIA—

The French monetary system is the legal one, but some old coins are still in circulation.

MOROCCO—

1 Mitkal = 10 Ounces.
1 Ounce = 4 Blankeels.
1 Blankeel = 24 Flues.

There are silver coins representing the mitkal and some fractions of it. The value of the mitkal is nominally about 4*s.* 3*d.* Spanish coins are also in regular use.

**Abyssinia—**

### A. Money of Account

1 Talaro = 16 Guerch.

### B. Coins

| Coins. | Fineness. | Sterling Value. £ | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Silver—* | | | | |
| Talaro | .9 | 0 | 3 | 11.5 |
| ½ Talaro | .9 | 0 | 1 | 11.75 |
| ¼ Talaro | .9 | 0 | 0 | 11.87 |
| ⅛ Talaro | .9 | 0 | 0 | 5.94 |
| *Copper—* | | | | |
| Guerch | — | 0 | 0 | 2.97 |
| ½ Guerch | — | 0 | 0 | 1.48 |
| ¼ Guerch | — | 0 | 0 | 0.74 |

The *talaro* was introduced as the standard coin in 1894. It is of the same weight and fineness as the French five-franc piece. Formerly the standard coin was the *Maria Theresa dollar*, and this is still in regular use along with the talaro.

**British East Africa—**

The monetary system of British East Africa is the same as that of India, the principal unit and coin being the *rupee*. In Zanzibar the *Maria Theresa dollar* is the standard money of account, but the rupee is the chief current coin. The dollar has a fixed value of 2 rupees 2 annas (= 2*s.* 10*d.*).

**German East Africa—**

The currency is that of British India, the unit being the *rupee* (German spelling, *rupie*).

**Cape Colony, Natal, &c.—**

In Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal, the Orange Free State, British West Africa, and some other British possessions the monetary system is that of Britain, but in some parts French and other coins are in regular use along with those of Britain.

**Portuguese Possessions—**

The currency of Portuguese Africa is the same as that of Portugal, but the Mozambique *milreis* is valued at only about 1*s.* 3*d.*

**Madagascar, Réunion, &c.—**

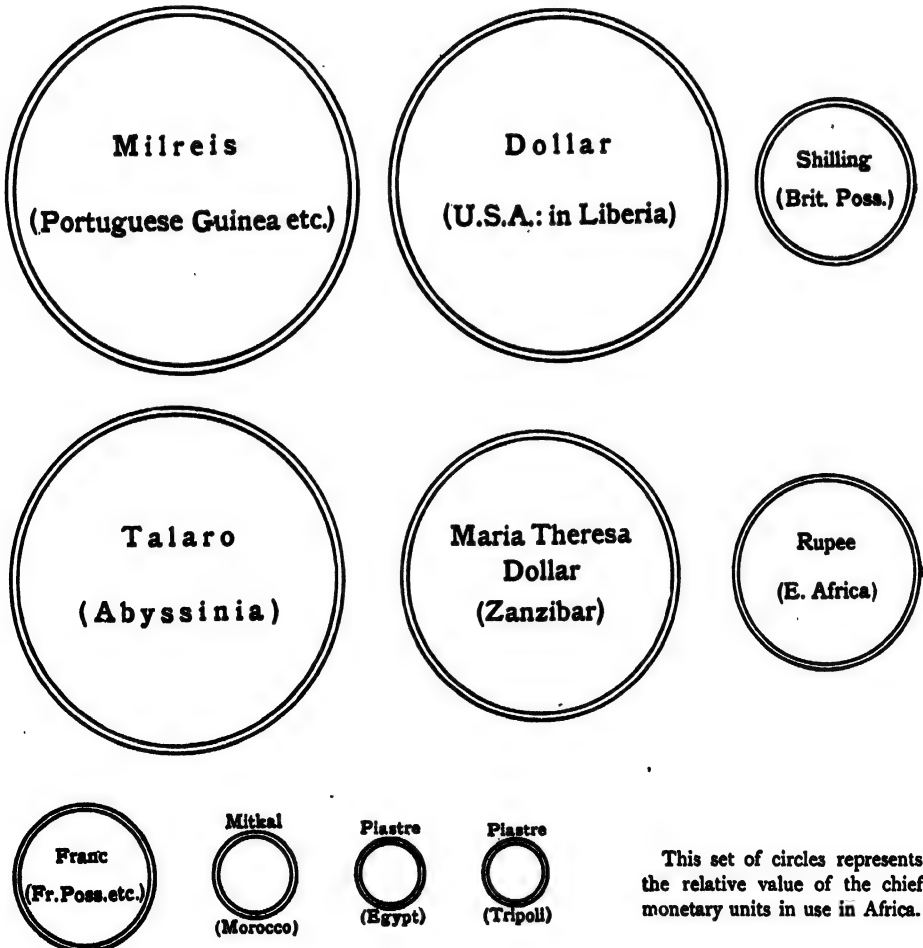
The French currency is the standard.

**Mauritius—**

The standard unit and coin is the *rupee*, divided into 100 cents, as in Ceylon.

**Congo State—**

Belgian money is in use.

### Relative Value of Chief Monetary Units

This set of circles represents the relative value of the chief monetary units in use in Africa.

## Weights and Measures

In Egypt, Tripoli, Algeria, and most other French possessions, Portuguese possessions, the Congo State, and Mauritius, the Metric System of weights and measures is the legal standard. In Cape Colony, Natal, and most British possessions, the British Imperial System is the standard one. Some Dutch measures are still in regular use in South Africa, notably the *morgen*, equal to about two acres.

The following divisions require special notice:—

TUNIS—

Unit of length, the *pike*, *pic*, or *draa*, of variable magnitude, the lowest equivalent being about 18 inches.

A *mechia* of land is about 27 acres.

A *kafi* is about 1.7 quarters, and a *saa* about 4½ pints.

Principal Units of Length

A *millerole* is equal to about 14 gallons, and a *mettar* to about 2.1 gallons.

A *rottolo* or *rottel* is about half a kilogram, or 1.11 lbs. avoirdupois.

MOROCCO—

A *draa* measures about 22 inches.

The *saa* of six *muhds* contains about 3 gallons.

A *rotal* is about equal to the *rottolo* of Tunis.

Principal Units of Weight

ABYSSINIA—

The Turkish *pike* of 27 inches is the principal measure of length.

An *ardeb* contains about 7¾ pints, and a *kuba* about 1.78 pints.

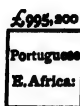
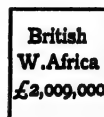
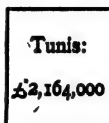
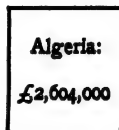
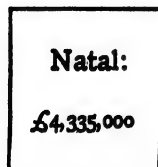
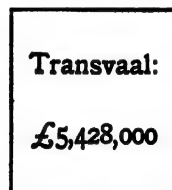
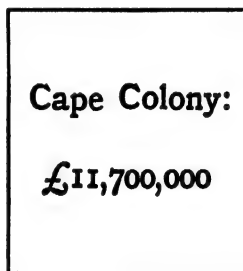
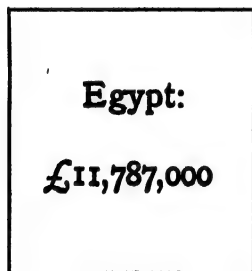
A *rotolo* weighs about .7 lb. avoirdupois.

ZANZIBAR—

A *wanda* = 1 inch; a *thiraa* = 18 inches; a *wari* = a yard.

A *ratel* = a pound avoirdupois.

## Finance

### REVENUE: COMPARATIVE DIAGRAMS

The above square diagrams show the relative revenues of the principal political divisions of Africa. The scale is four times that of the corresponding diagrams for Asia. This set of comparative diagrams brings out in a striking way the leading position among African countries of those which belong to, or are under the control of, Britain. Egypt, virtually a British possession, is in the first place, and it is followed immediately by the three chief divisions of British South Africa, namely, Cape Colony, the Transvaal, and Natal. Next in order come the two most important French possessions in Africa, Algeria and Tunis.

PUBLIC DEBT: COMPARATIVE DIAGRAMS

Egypt: £102,187,000

Transvaal & O.F.S.: £65,000,000.

Cape Colony: £36,470,000.

Mauritius: £1,379,000.

Natal: £14,020,000

British West Africa: £4,285,000.

Tunis: £6,700,000

Congo: £6,500,000.

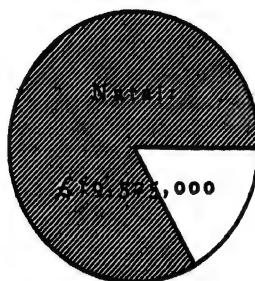
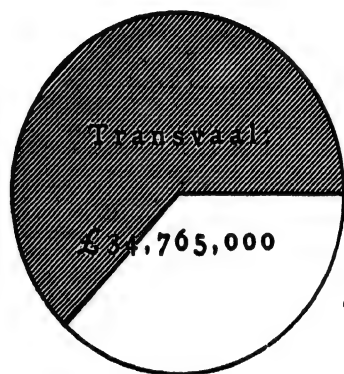
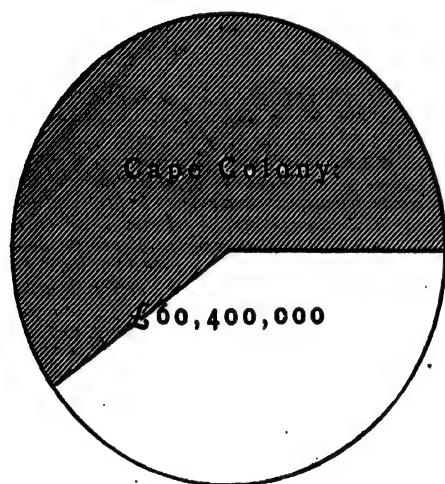
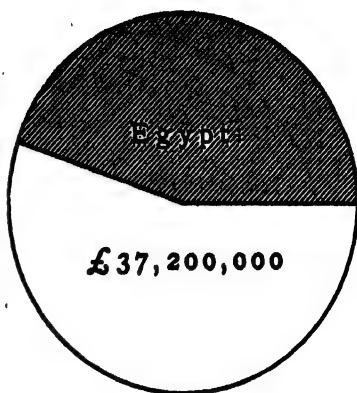
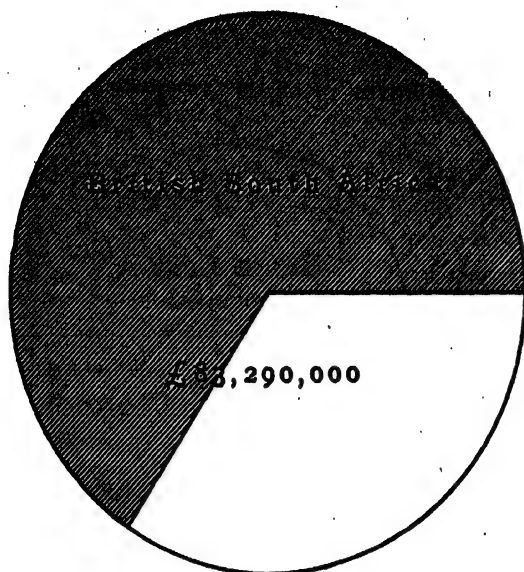
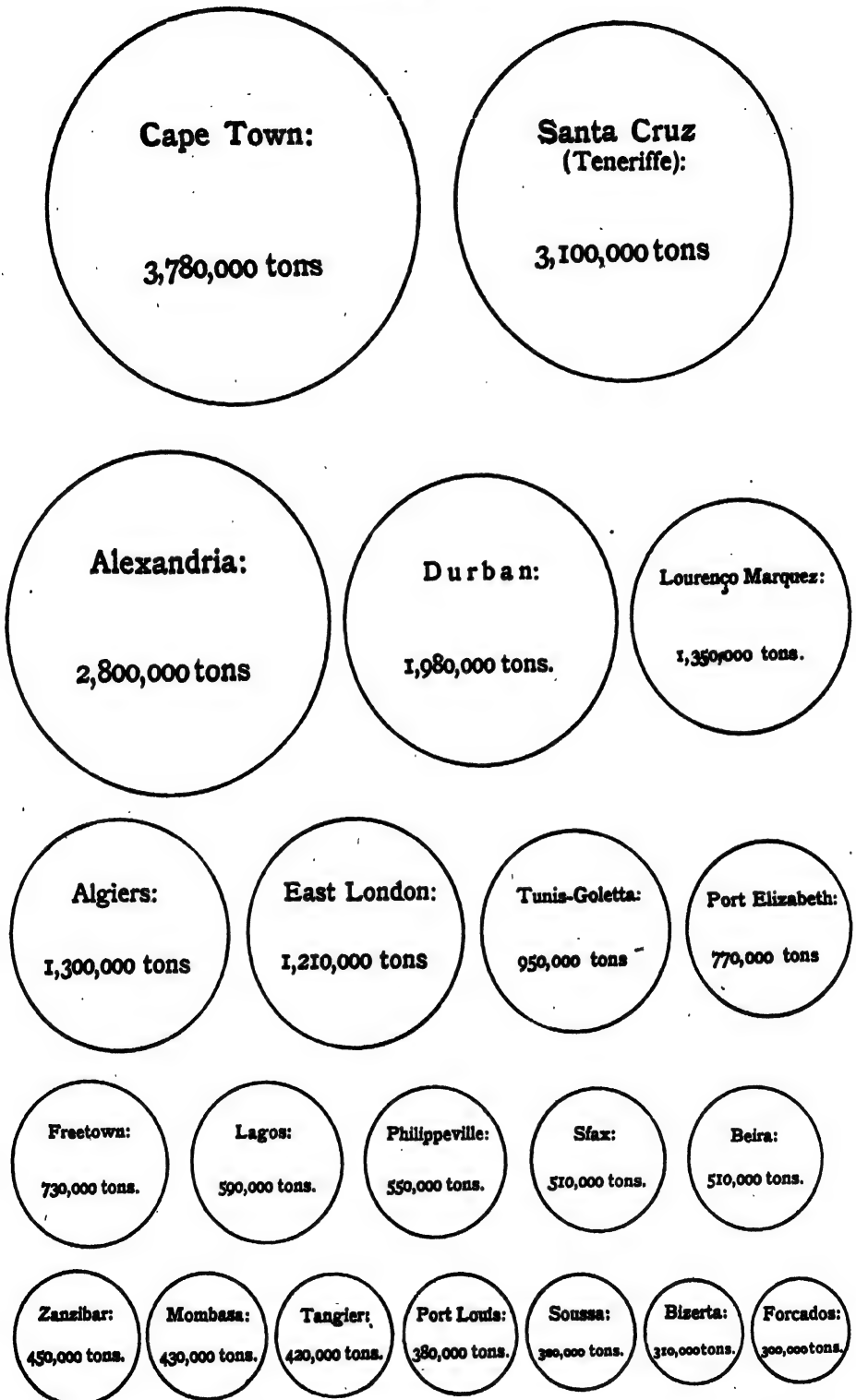
The above rectangular diagrams show the relative magnitudes of the public debts of the principal political divisions of Africa. The scale is twice that of the corresponding diagrams for Asia. This set of diagrams teaches the same lesson as the preceding set, namely, the immense importance among African countries of those which belong to, or are controlled by, Britain. The public debts correspond in a rough way with economic importance. The enormous national debt of Egypt was the occasion of European interference in Egyptian affairs about thirty years ago, and that interference has continued till the present time, being now represented by the British military occupation and financial administration. The French protest which was maintained for many years against the British position in Egypt has been withdrawn completely as a result of the recent great Anglo-French agreement. The British occupation of Egypt, intended primarily to secure the interests of the foreign bond-holders by the control of finance, has produced an enormous growth of material prosperity. Great works of immense benefit to the whole people have been carried out, and the whole condition of the people has been marvellously improved.

The debt of £65,000,000 shown against the recently annexed Boer territories requires a word of explanation. It consists of two parts, a Development Loan of £35,000,000 and a War Contribution Loan of £30,000,000. The former, which has Imperial guarantee, has been made to meet the liabilities of the annexed states, to acquire and extend railways, to repatriate Boers, and to meet other similar requirements. The latter, which is without Imperial guarantee, is payable by the Transvaal in three equal annual instalments of £10,000,000, but no payment has yet been made. At the time of the grant of constitutions to the Transvaal and Orange Free State in 1906 it was decided by the Imperial Government to forgo this liability.

## Commerce

The following set of circle diagrams shows the relative value of the total trade of the principal commercial countries or territories of Africa, and also the relative value of imports and exports in each case. The scale of the diagrams is four times that of the corresponding series of diagrams for Asia. In each circle the shaded sector represents the value of the imports, and the unshaded sector that of the exports. Several natural groups of countries, such as British South Africa, are included in the table as single commercial units, although their chief component countries also appear separately. In the case of British South Africa intercolonial trade has been, as far as possible, excluded in calculating the total; and accordingly the total given for British South Africa is considerably less than the sum of the totals given for its parts.

In the parts of this survey dealing with each of the chief commercial countries the commerce will be treated of in some detail, but it may be useful to give here some general facts and considerations. In commercial importance Africa is as yet far behind the other continents, but its possibilities are very great. It is only in its infancy so far as trade is concerned—indeed, it is only in its infancy in almost every respect. The interior, although no longer a blank on our maps, is still far from being well known, and its great commercial possibilities have been hitherto exploited only to a very small extent. Its future is strictly conditioned, commercially as in other ways, by its essentially tropical character, and by its unsuitability as a whole for European colonization. The natives of the Americas have been displaced by Europeans, and America has become another Europe; but Africa will always be essentially the black man's land, however much European control and administration may be extended and strengthened.

A partial exception to this general statement must be made in favour of the sub-continent of South Africa, which is now mostly in British hands. This sub-continent is temperate or at most sub-tropical, and it is not only well adapted for European colonization, but actually colonized by various European races, notably British and the class of Dutch distinctively known as Boers. Nevertheless, even here the native negroid races form the majority of the population. The diagrams show that South Africa is the leading commercial district of the whole continent, followed at some distance by Egypt. Algeria and British West Africa also take an important place as commercial territories. Accordingly, the commercial diagrams agree in a general way with the financial diagrams in regard to the order of relative importance of the territorial divisions of Africa, and in emphasizing the special value of the parts of the continent which are under British control or in direct British possession. Tropical Africa is seen to be far behind commercially, the most valuable tropical district at present being the Guinea coast, where Britain, France, and Germany have considerable possessions. The great island of Madagascar is seen to be also as yet comparatively undeveloped.

The above circle diagrams show the relative extent of the shipping of the principal ports of Africa as measured by the tonnage entered in a recent year.

## The Railways of Africa

EGYPT AND THE ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN—

1. *The Delta Lines:*

   Principally Cairo—Alexandria, Cairo—Ismailia—Suez, and Cairo—Damietta.

2. *The Nile Valley Line:*

   Cairo—Assuan, with branches to Fayum district.

3. *The Sudan Lines:*

   Wadi Halfa—Kerma.
   Wadi Halfa—Abu Hamed—Berber—Khartum.
   Berber—Suakin.

ALGERIA AND TUNIS—

Coast Line connecting Oran, Algiers, Constantine, Tunis, Susa, &c., with branches.
Lines running inland to Figuig, Biskra, &c.

THE GUINEA LANDS—

Dakar—Rufisque—St. Louis (Senegal).
Kayes—Bammaku—Kulikoro (Senegal and the Niger).
Konakry—Kurussa (French Guinea).
Freetown—Bo and beyond (Sierra Leone).
Bassam to the interior (Ivory Coast).
Sekondi—Kumasi (Gold Coast).
Lome—Palime (Togoland).
Kotonu—Abomey and farther inland (Dahomey).
Lagos—Ibadan—Ilorin—Niger (Lagos and Nigeria).
Zungeru—Niger (Nigeria).
Victoria—Lisoka (Kamerun).

THE CONGO LANDS—

Matadi—Stanley Pool; Stanley Falls—Albert Nyanza; Nyangwe—Tanganyika (all in Congo State).
Loanda—Malanshe; Benguella—Bihe Plateau; Mossamedes—interior (all in Angola).

EAST AFRICA—

Massowah—Asmara (Eritrea).
Jibutil—Harrar—Addis Abeba (French Somaliland and Abyssinia).
Mombasa—Kisumu and Port Florence (British East Africa).
Tanga—Korogwe—Mombo (German East Africa).
Coast—Lake Nyassa (German East Africa).

SOUTH AFRICA—

1. *Cape Colony Lines:*

   Western Section: Cape Town—De Aar, with branches.
   Midland Section: Port Elizabeth—Norval's Pont, with branches.
   Eastern Section: East London—Aliwal North, with branches.
   Northern Section: De Aar—Vryburg.

2. *Orange Free State Lines.*

   Main line: Norval's Pont—Bloemfontein—Viljoen's Drift, with branches to Kimberley, &c.

3. *Transvaal Lines:*

   Viljoen's Drift—Pretoria, with branches to Johannesburg, Pietersburg, &c.
   Pretoria—Komati Poort—Delagoa Bay.

4. *Natal Lines:*

   Durban—Pietermaritzburg—Ladysmith—Transvaal, with branches.

5. *Rhodesian Lines:*

   Vryburg—Mafeking—Bulawayo—Salisbury—Umtali—Beira, with branches to Victoria Falls, &c.

6. *Other Lines:*

   Blantyre—Nyassa line (Central Africa Protectorate).
   Windhoek—Swakopmund (German South-West Africa).

ISLANDS—

Railways in Madagascar, Mauritius, Réunion.

The total length of African railways is about 16,000 miles. Egypt, British South Africa, and Algeria and Tunis have the greatest lengths of railway.

The railway system of Africa is rapidly developing and extending, not only in the more advanced territories, but even in those which are at present almost completely uncivilized. The above list includes some lines still uncompleted, some of them, indeed, only projected as yet. The most notable of all African railways is the steadily extending Cape-to-Cairo line, which, when completed, will connect Cape Town with the Egyptian part of the Mediterranean coast. It is being constructed from both ends. The northern part follows the Nile valley, and the southern part from Cape Town has now reached the Zambesi river at the Victoria Falls. There is still a considerable distance to cover along by the side of Lake Tanganyika before through communication is established, but the connection is sure to be made at no distant date.

# EGYPT

## Area and Population

| Divisions. | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population, 1897. |
|---|---|---|
| LOWER EGYPT— | | |
| *Governorships:* | | |
| Cairo | 100 | 570,062 |
| Alexandria | | 319,766 |
| Damietta | | 43,751 |
| Suez Canal | | 50,179 |
| Suez | | 24,970 |
| El Arish | | 16,991 |
| *Provinces:* | | |
| Behera ... | 930 | 631,225 |
| Gharbieh ... | 2340 | 1,297,656 |
| Menufieh ... | 640 | 864,206 |
| Dakahlieh ... | 930 | 736,708 |
| Kalyubieh ... | 350 | 371,465 |
| Charkieh ... | 905 | 749,130 |
| UPPER EGYPT— | | |
| *Provinces:* | | |
| Gizeh ... | 370 | 401,634 |
| Beni Suef ... | 500 | 314,454 |
| Fayum ... | 495 | 371,006 |
| Minia ... | 770 | 548,632 |
| Assiut ... | 840 | 782,720 |
| Girgeh ... | 630 | 688,011 |
| Keneh ... | 540 | 711,457 |
| Assuan ... | — | 240,382 |
| Total ... | — | 9,734,405 |

The total area of Egypt is about 400,000 sq. miles.

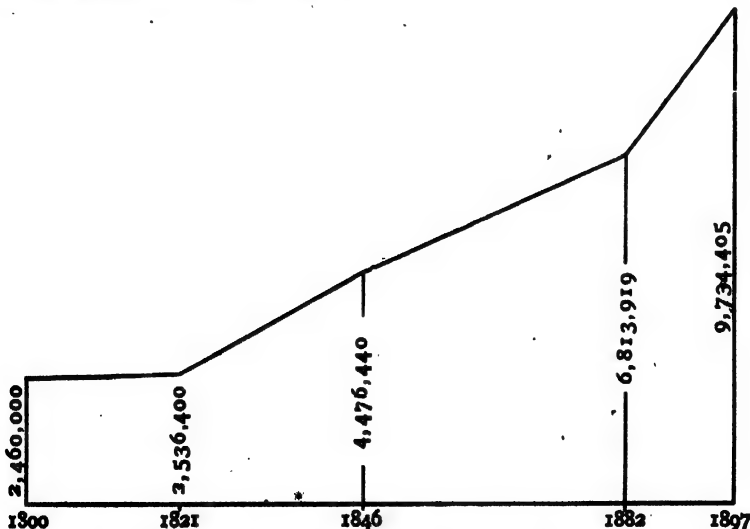
| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Upper Egypt | Illiterate: 95·93 % | Literate |
| All Egypt | Illiterate: 94.2 % | Literate |
| Lower Egypt | Illiterate: 92.98 % | Literate |

The above diagram shows for Upper Egypt, all Egypt, and Lower Egypt respectively the percentage of illiterates at the census of 1897 among the sedentary Egyptian population over seven years of age.

### FOREIGN POPULATION

| Nationality. | Number, 1897. |
|---|---|
| Greek... | 38,175 |
| Italian | 24,467 |
| British | 19,557 |
| French | 14,155 |
| Austro-Hungarian | 7,117 |
| Russian | 3,193 |
| German | 1,277 |
| Persian | 1,301 |
| Others | 3,284 |
| Total | 112,526 |

## Population according to Mode of Life

| Mode of Life. | Number, 1897. |
|---|---|
| Sedentary ... | 9,132,978 |
| Semi-sedentary (Beduins) | 530,955 |
| Nomad (Beduins) ... | 70,472 |
| Total | 9,734,405 |

The above diagram shows the population of Egypt at various dates from 1800 onwards. The returns for 1846, 1882, and 1897 are census figures, and are more reliable than those for 1800 and 1821.

## Population according to Religion

| Religious Groups. | Number, 1897. |
|---|---|
| Mohammedans ... ... ... | 8,977,702 |
| Christians— | |
| Orthodox (Copts, Greeks, Armenians, Syrians) ... ... | 645,775 |
| Catholic (Roman and other) ... | 61,051 |
| Protestant ... ... ... | 24,409 |
| Jews ... ... ... ... | 25,200 |

## Population according to Occupation

| Description. | Number, 1897. | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Male. | Female. | Total. |
| Under 10 years of age ... ... | 1,623,674 | 1,596,482 | 3,220,156 |
| No occupation ... | 147,398 | 3,118,902 | 3,266,300 |
| Agriculture ... | 2,049,643 | — | 2,049,643 |
| Industries and Trades ... ... | 557,816 | 23,867 | 581,683 |
| Labourers... ... | 185,268 } | 4,949 | 257,825 |
| Clerks ... ... | 67,608 } | | |
| Liberal Professions | 6,031 | 2,742 | 8,773 |
| Religion and Instruction ... | 160,984 | 4,267 | 165,251 |
| Military and Police | 36,051 | — | 36,051 |
| Domestics ... | 113,377 | 35,346 | 148,723 |
| Total... ... | 4,947,850 | 4,786,555 | 9,734,405 |

## Agriculture

The following table gives the areas under the leading crops in Egypt:—

| Crops. | Area in Acres. |
|---|---|
| *Summer Crops* (*April–Aug.*)— | |
| Cotton (mostly Lower) ... ... | 1,600,000 |
| Sugar-cane... ... ... ... | 80,000 |
| Rice (Lower) ... ... ... | 100,000 |
| Vegetables, &c. ... ... ... | 85,000 |
| Melons (Upper) ... ... ... | 13,000 |
| Sorghum (Upper)... ... ... | 160,000 |
| *Flood Crops* (*Aug.–Dec.*)— | |
| Dates ... ... ... ... | 7,400,000 |
| Maize (Lower) ... ... ... | 900,000 |
| Rice ... ... ... ... | 100,000 |
| Sorghum (Upper)... ... ... | 500,000 |
| *Winter Crops* (*Dec.–April*)— | |
| Wheat ... ... ... ... | 1,200,000 |
| Barley ... ... ... ... | 600,000 |
| Beans ... ... ... ... | 700,000 |
| Lentils (Upper) ... ... ... | 140,000 |
| Clover ... ... ... ... | 1,450,000 |
| Onions ... ... ... ... | 15,000 |
| Vetches (Upper) ... ... ... | 115,000 |
| Flax ... ... ... ... | 5,000 |
| Vegetables, &c. ... ... ... | 70,000 |

Double-cropped area = about 2,100,000 acres.

## Irrigation Works on the Nile

A. Canals—

I. *The Delta Canals:*

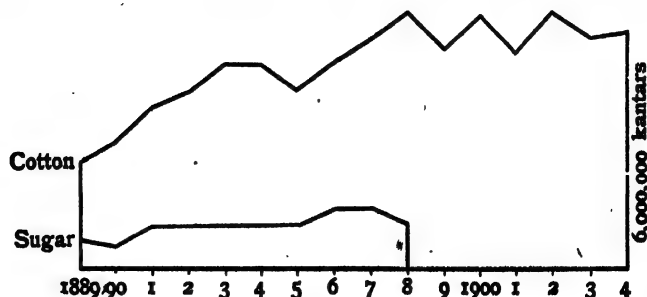
1. Rayyah Behera (Rosetta Canal).
2. Rayyah Tewfiki.
3. Rayyah Menufia.
4. Ismailia Canal.

II. *Upper Egypt Canals:*

Chiefly the Ibrahimia Canal and the canals of the Fayum district fed by the Bahr Yusef.

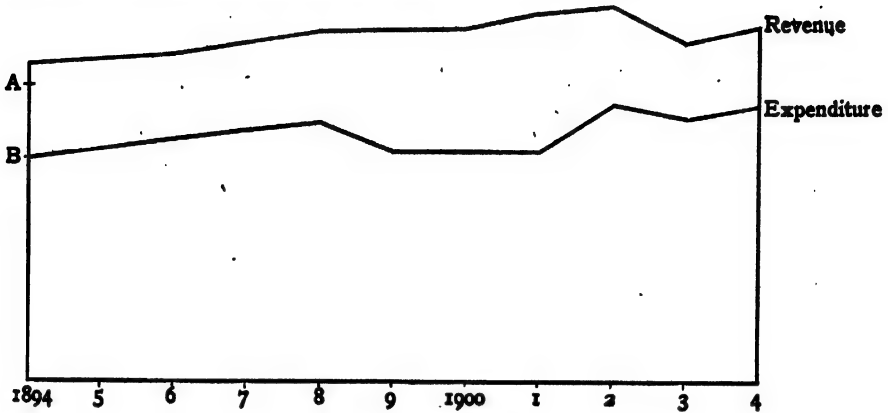
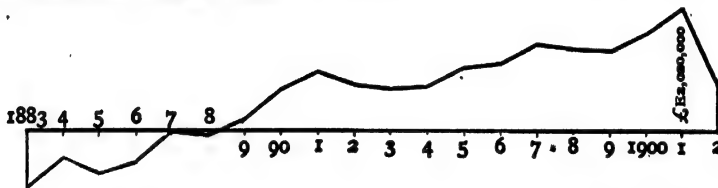
B. Barrages and Dams—

1. The Barrages at the head of the Delta.
2. The Zifta Barrage on the Damietta Branch.
3. The Assiut Barrage.
4. The Assuan Dam.

The absolute dependence of Egypt upon the Nile is a commonplace of geographical writing, but it is none the less a fact of the utmost importance. Without the perennial Nile there would be no inhabitable country in this part of the continent, but thanks to that famous river Egypt is one of the most prosperous parts of Africa. Most of the land is irrigated by means of canals, which convey water from the Nile. There are two chief methods of irrigation, known as *Perennial Irrigation* and *Basin Irrigation*. Perennial irrigation is effected by means of what are called summer canals. These are deep canals which can be supplied with water from the Nile all the year round. The water is let out from these canals over the land whenever it is wanted. Perennial irrigation is practised throughout the Delta and the Fayum province, and to an increasing extent in Upper Egypt, especially since the construction of the great dams and barrages. The Basin system of irrigation is quite different. The land is in this case divided into basins by dykes or banks of earth, and these are flooded at high Nile by means of shallow flood canals.

The above graph shows the variation in the output of cotton and sugar in Egypt during 1889–1904.

# Finance

## A. The Course of Finance

The following graphs show the progress of the revenue and expenditure of Egypt during 1894-1904. For the sake of clearness the expenditure curve has been lowered throughout by the height A B.

The following graph shows the state of Egyptian finance from 1883 to 1902. Measures above the line of dates denote a surplus; those below that line a deficit.

## B. Revenue

The following table gives the revenue of Egypt according to the Budget estimates for 1904:—

| Sources of Revenue. | Amount, £E. |
|---|---|
| Direct Taxation— | |
| Land Tax, &c. ... ... ... | 4,905,000 |
| Indirect Taxation— | |
| Customs ... ... ... ... | 1,150,000 |
| Tobacco ... ... ... ... | 1,130,000 |
| Miscellaneous ... ... ... | 367,000 |
| Revenue from Public Services— | |
| Railways ... ... ... ... | 2,250,000 |
| Telegraphs... ... ... ... | 70,000 |
| Post-Office... ... ... ... | 150,000 |
| Revenue from Administrative Services— | |
| Ports and Lighthouses ... ... | 263,000 |
| Ministry of Justice ... ... | 718,000 |
| Other Administrations ... ... | 84,000 |
| Miscellaneous ... ... ... | 197,400 |
| **Total Ordinary Revenue** ... | 11,284,400 |
| Contribution from General Reserve Fund ... ... ... ... | 215,600 |
| **Total Revenue** ... ... | £E11,500,000 |

## C. Expenditure

The following table gives the expenditure of Egypt as estimated in the Budget for 1904:—

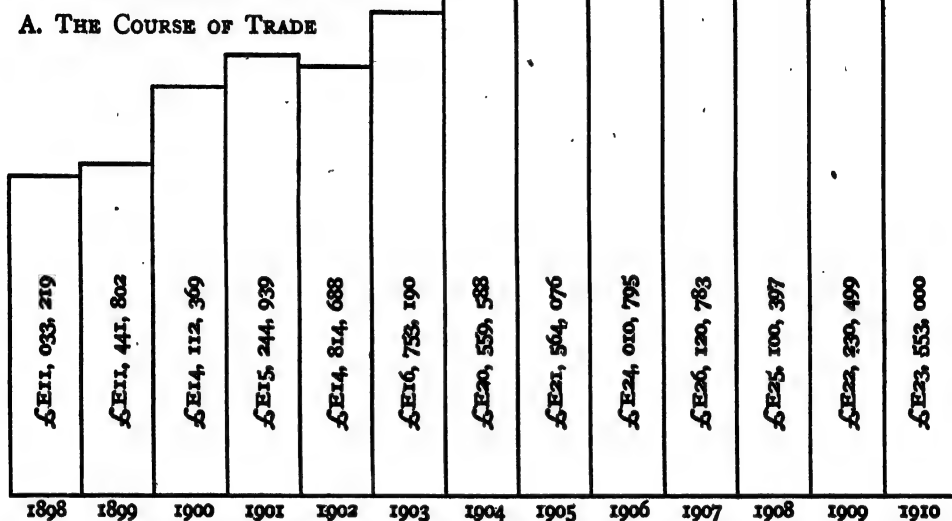
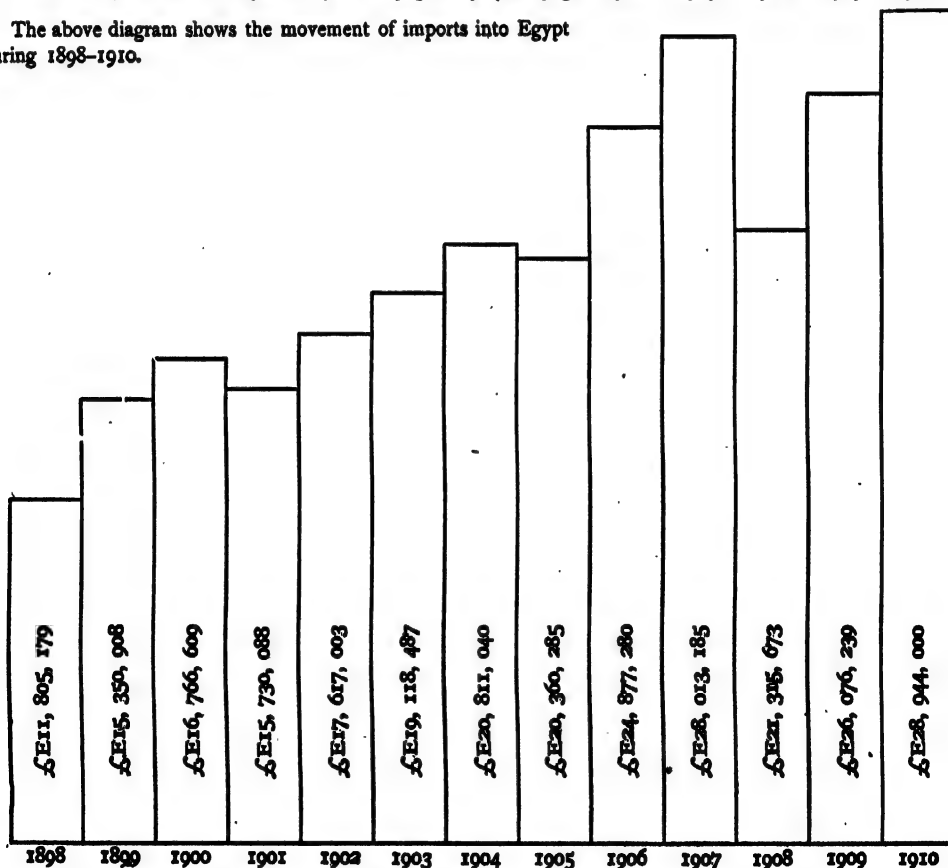
| Heads of Expenditure. | Amount, £E. |
|---|---|
| Civil List ... ... ... ... | 255,361 |
| Expenses of Administration... ... | 2,433,596 |
| Expenses of Public Services— | |
| Railways ... ... ... ... | 1,242,200 |
| Telegraphs... ... ... ... | 58,851 |
| Post-Office... ... ... ... | 127,772 |
| Ports and Lighthouses ... ... | 75,528 |
| Others ... ... ... ... | 1,732 |
| Army— | |
| Egyptian Army ... ... ... | 451,695 |
| Army of Occupation ... ... | 84,825 |
| Pensions ... ... ... ... | 416,000 |
| Tribute and Public Debt Services— | |
| Tribute ... ... ... ... | 665,041 |
| Expenses of Caisse de la Dette ... | 39,000 |
| Consolidated Debt ... ... | 3,481,741 |
| Non-Consolidated Debt ... ... | 198,767 |
| Suppression of Corvée ... ... | 250,000 |
| Sudan Deficit ... ... ... | 379,763 |
| Annuity of Reservoir Works ... | 153,295 |
| Sanitation of Cairo ... ... ... | 10,000 |
| Reserve for Unforeseen Expenses ... | 32,000 |
| **Total Ordinary Expenditure** | 10,357,167 |
| Conversion Economies ... ... | 265,037 |
| Sinking Fund on Guaranteed Loan | 70,846 |
| Payment to General Reserve Fund | 716,950 |
| **Total Expenditure** ... | £E11,410,000 |

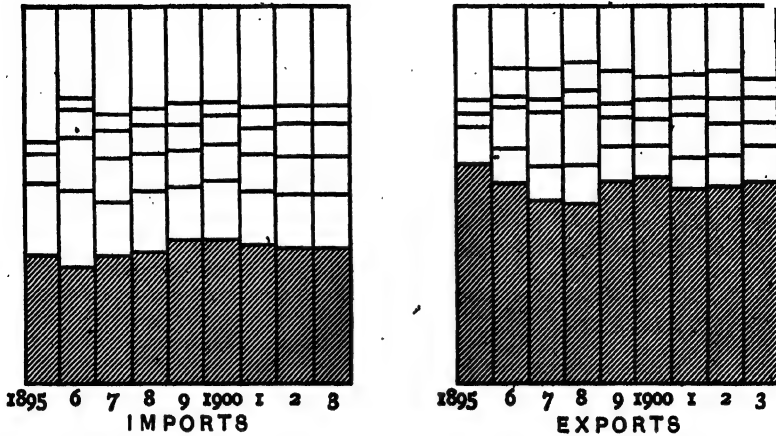
### D. Public Debt

The public debt of Egypt stood as follows in 1904:—

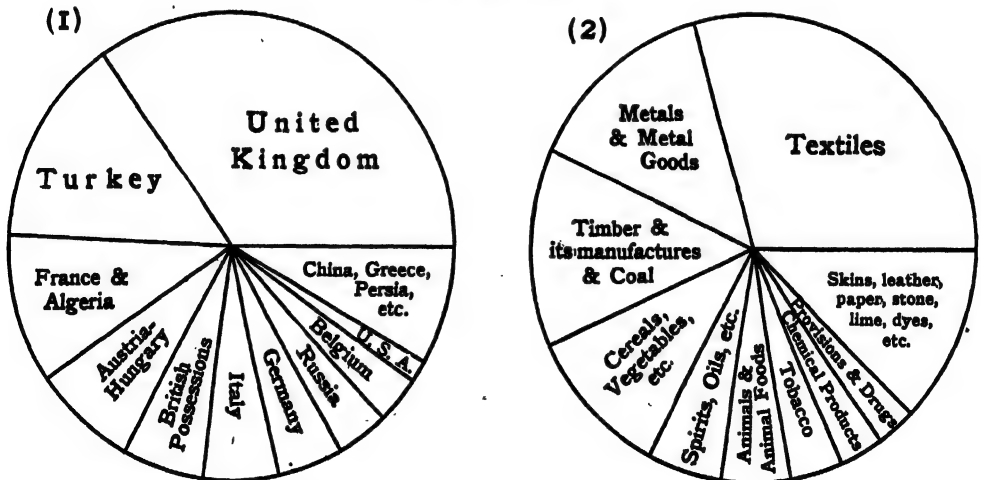
| Kind of Debt. | Amount, £. |
|---|---|
| Guaranteed Loan of 1885 at 3% | 8,077,900 |
| Unified Debt at 4% ... ... | 55,971,960 |
| Privileged Debt at 3½% ... | 31,127,780 |
| Domains Debt at 4¼% ... | 2,056,420 |
| Daira-Sanieh Loan at 4% ... | 4,952,860 |
| Total ... ... | £102,186,920 |

## Commerce

### A. The Course of Trade

The above diagram shows the movement of imports into Egypt during 1898–1910.



The above diagram shows the movement of exports from Egypt during 1898–1910.

The above diagrams show the distribution of the imports and exports of Egypt among the principal countries concerned in Egyptian trade during 1895–1903. The shaded part of each rectangle represents the share of Britain. For the imports diagram the other spaces relate in upward order to Turkey, France and Algeria, Austria-Hungary, Italy, and all other countries; for the exports diagram they refer to France and Algeria, Russia, Germany, the United States, and all other countries; but in both cases France and Algeria is omitted in the rectangle for 1895.

The importance of Egypt financially and commercially has already appeared from the comparative diagrams of the African countries and territories. A large part of its trade consists in the export of food-stuffs and raw materials of manufacture produced within its own territory, but it has also an entrepôt trade of some importance and magnitude due to its position on the Suez Canal route to India, China, and the East. It is surpassed commercially within its own continent only by British South Africa. The above diagrams show that its trade is expanding on the whole, subject to the usual fluctuations, but Britain's share in that trade cannot be said to be increasing. Other European countries and the United States are becoming of greater importance as traders with Egypt, although Britain has still a much larger share than any of them. Under the new Anglo-French agreement Britain undertakes to maintain equal commercial facilities for all nations for a period of thirty years in return for the recognition of her virtual protectorate or special position in Egyptian administration. This will last for additional successive periods of five years, in default of a year's notice of an intended change. Egyptian commerce is exhibited in greater detail in the following figures and diagrams of imports, exports, and shipping.

## B. Imports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the distribution of the imported merchandise of Egypt among the principal countries of origin, and (2) the principal kinds of commodities imported into Egypt, with their relative values.

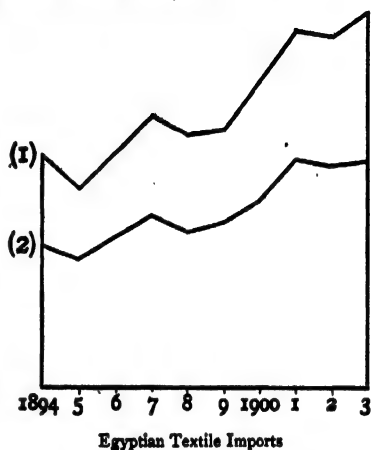
Sources of Chief Egyptian Imports

The above diagram shows, according to the plan previously adopted for other countries, the principal countries of origin of some of the leading imports into Egypt in a recent year, and also in each case the share of each participating country in the total imports. The United Kingdom, which has the largest share of Egyptian imports as a whole, leads in textiles, notably cottons; metals and metal goods, notably iron and machinery; and coal. Of the last she has practically a monopoly in the case of Egypt as in the case of some other countries. In the first two of these classes she is exposed to an ever-increasing extent to the competition of other European countries. Belgium, which is a rival of Britain in the export of iron and steel and their manufactures to several markets, comes second to Britain in this respect in the case of Egypt, and Germany is a good third. The countries which chiefly share the import of textiles with Britain are Austria, France, and Italy. In the other three classes of imported commodities shown in the diagram, Britain has either no place or an unimportant one. Sweden leads in timber in the case of Egypt, as in the case of several other countries, and no country enjoys here the marked preponderance enjoyed by Britain in the classes first mentioned. France, with its great African dependency of Algeria, takes first place as a supplier of cereals, vegetables, and similar food commodities, followed, as in the case of timber, by Egypt's suzerain, Turkey. In hardware Britain is beaten by three European countries, France, Belgium, and Germany, and Italy comes next to her. The diagram does not show the countries of origin of all the kinds of commodities named on the imports circle on the preceding page, but only of some of the most important.

Exports from Britain to Egypt

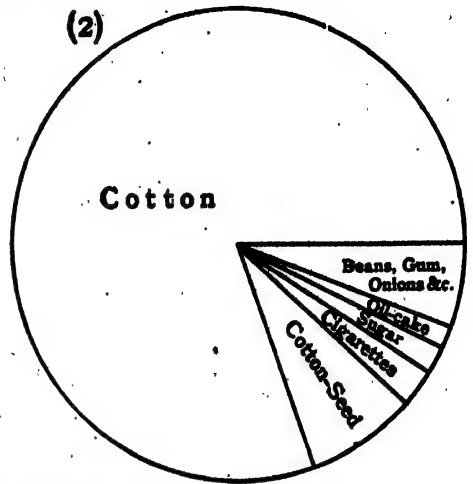
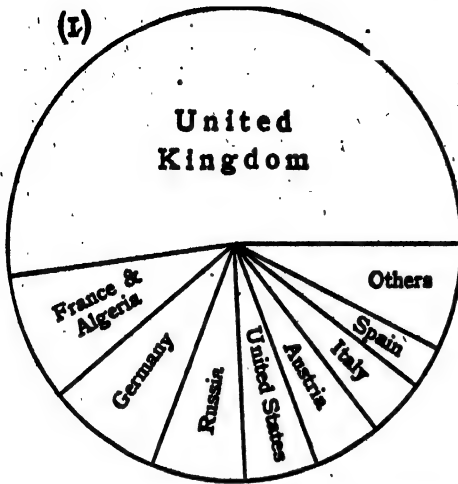
The above diagram shows the principal commodities received by Egypt from the United Kingdom, and their relative values according to the Board of Trade Returns. Their total value in a recent year was about £8,000,000.

The etcetera of the above diagram covers the following among other commodities: apparel and haberdashery, arms, ammunition, and military stores, beer and ale, biscuits and cakes, railway carriages and parts thereof, cement, chemicals and chemical preparations, cordage, wheat-flour, cutlery, earthen and chinaware, grease and tallow, implements and tools, jute goods, leather, linen yarn and linens, copper, tin, floor-cloth, painters' materials, pickles, confectionery, preserves, provisions, saddlery and harness, ships and boats, spirits, stationery, telegraph cables and apparatus, furniture and other manufactures of wood. Britain also exports to Egypt about £120,000 worth of foreign and colonial merchandise, mostly fish, cheese, machinery, meat, tallow, tea, wine, timber, paper, and drugs.

Egyptian Textile Imports

The above graphs show: (1) the variation in the value of all textiles imported into Egypt during the period 1894–1903, and (2) the variation in the value of textiles imported during that period from the United Kingdom. The value of (1) for 1903 was £E4,957,000, and of (2) £2,920,000.

One of the diagrams on the following page shows the supreme importance of raw cotton among the exports of Egypt, and one of the circle diagrams of the previous page shows that textiles are at present the principal class of Egyptian imports. These textiles are mainly cotton yarn and cotton goods, the former only to a comparatively small extent. Egypt is not yet able to undertake the manufacture of her own raw cotton to any great extent, but she is sure to become even more important as a source of raw cotton for the Lancashire mills, now that the American supply is beginning to prove insufficient for British needs.

Not only Egypt, but many other countries are interested in the question of cotton supply, and efforts are being made to extend the cultivation of cotton in all suitable districts. Several parts of the British Empire, of little practical value in other ways, may find in this demand for cotton the opportunity of attaining commercial importance. The West African colonies are the principal case in point, and Lagos is already a producer of cotton to a fair extent. The supply from British India may also be increased considerably, and the West Indies may recover something of their old position as a source of raw cotton for the British spinning-mills.

## C. Exports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal countries of destination of the Egyptian exports, and (2) the principal commodities exported from Egypt, with their relative value.

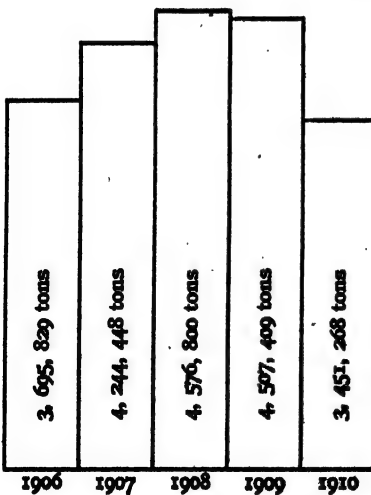
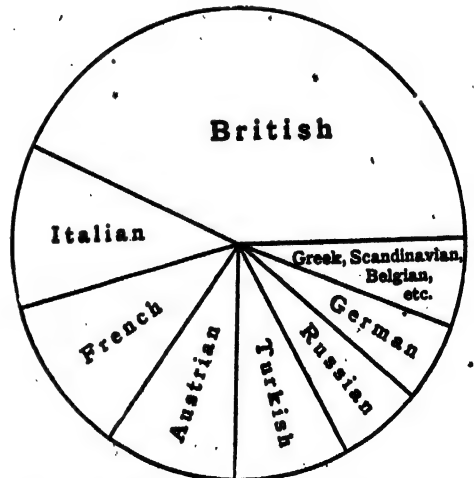
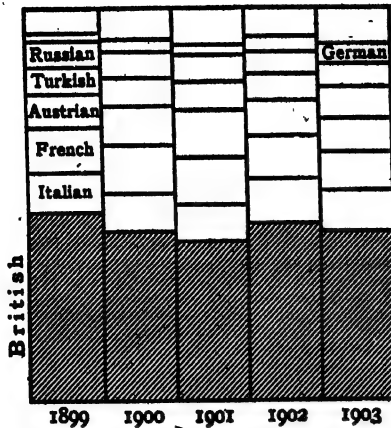
Raw Cotton | Cotton Seed

The above diagram shows the principal commodities imported into the United Kingdom from Egypt, and their relative values according to the Board of Trade Returns. The total value in a recent year was about £20,000,000.

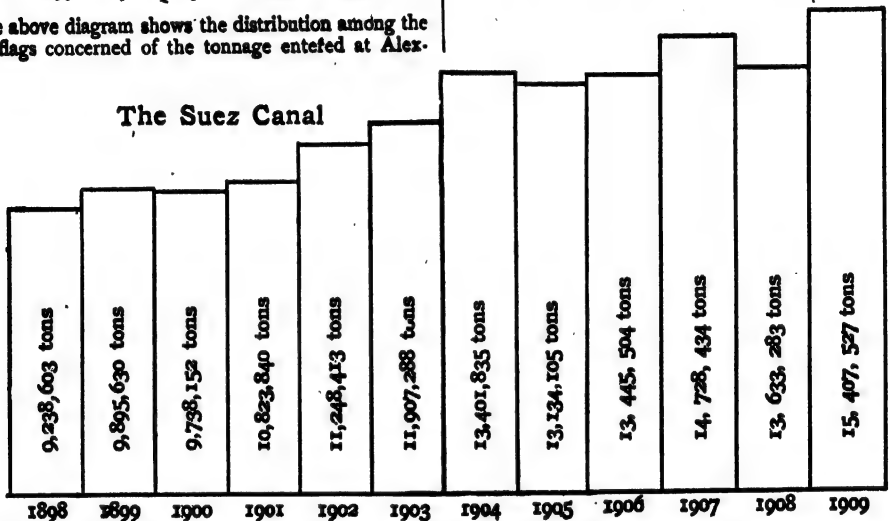
Raw Cotton Exported to

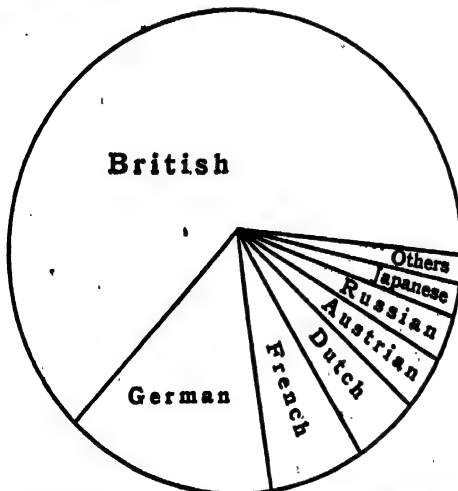
United Kingdom | France | Germany | Russia | U. S. A. | Austria | Italy | Other Countries

The above diagram shows the principal countries of destination of the raw cotton exported from Egypt.

## Shipping and Ports

The above diagram shows the tonnage of shipping entered at Alexandria in each year from 1906 to 1910 inclusive.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the shipping tonnage entered at Alexandria among the principal flags concerned.

The above diagram shows the distribution among the chief flags concerned of the tonnage entered at Alexandria in each year from 1899 to 1903 inclusive. The order upwards is: British, Italian, French, Austrian, Turkish, Russian, German, and all others.

The above diagram shows Alexandria's share in the total import and export trade of Egypt.

The other chief ports of Egypt are Port Said and Suez.

The above diagram shows the movement of shipping tonnage through the Suez Canal during the period 1898–1909. Net tonnage is given throughout.

The following diagram shows the distribution among the principal flags of the net tonnage passed through the Suez Canal in a recent year:—

The British proportion of Suez Canal shipping is steadily increasing. Omitting war-ships, it is no less than 74 per cent.

The principal steamship companies whose vessels pass through the canal are, in order: Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, Norddeutscher Lloyd, Hansa Dampfschiffahrts-Gesellschaft, Ocean Steam Navigation Company, Messageries Maritimes, Clan Line, City Line, T. & J. Harrison, Austrian Lloyd, Hamburg-American Line, Anchor Line, British India Steam Navigation Company, Netherlands Steamship Company, Orient-Pacific Steam Navigation Company, Nippon Yusen Kaisha, and Bibby Brothers, each with over 200,000 tons net per year. Nine of these sixteen are British.

## Post-Office and Telegraphs

The number of letters and post-cards despatched through the Egyptian Post-Office in a recent year was 15,560,000; of newspapers, &c., 9,480,000; of parcels, 350,500. Besides all these in the inland service, there were 5,196,000 despatches and deliveries in the external services. The total value of post-office orders and remittances through the post-office was nearly £20,000,000 for the year. Fully a quarter of the correspondence is with the United Kingdom.

The length of telegraph line belonging to the Egyptian government is about 2600 miles, with about 10,900 miles of wire. The number of telegrams in a recent year was nearly 1,620,000, not including State telegrams or those sent by the Eastern Telegraph Company.

# ALGERIA

## Area and Population

| Departments | Area in Sq. Miles. | Pop. 1901. |
|---|---|---|
| Algiers | 20,725 | 1,515,059 |
| Oran | 23,455 | 1,050,734 |
| Constantine | 33,010 | 1,875,722 |
| Total | 77,190 | 4,441,515 |
| Southern Territories | 266,560 | 359,960 |
| Grand Total | 343,750 | 4,801,475 |

## Population according to Nationality

| Nationalities. | Number, 1901. |
|---|---|
| Natives | 4,200,464 |
| French | 358,174 |
| Non-French Europeans | 242,837 |
| Total | 4,801,475 |

## Population according to Religion

| Religions. | Number (round). |
|---|---|
| European Christians | 600,000 |
| Jews | 60,000 |
| Mohammedans | 4,140,000 |
| Total | 4,800,000 |

## Finance

Following are tables of the revenue and expenditure of Algeria in a recent year:—

### A. Revenue

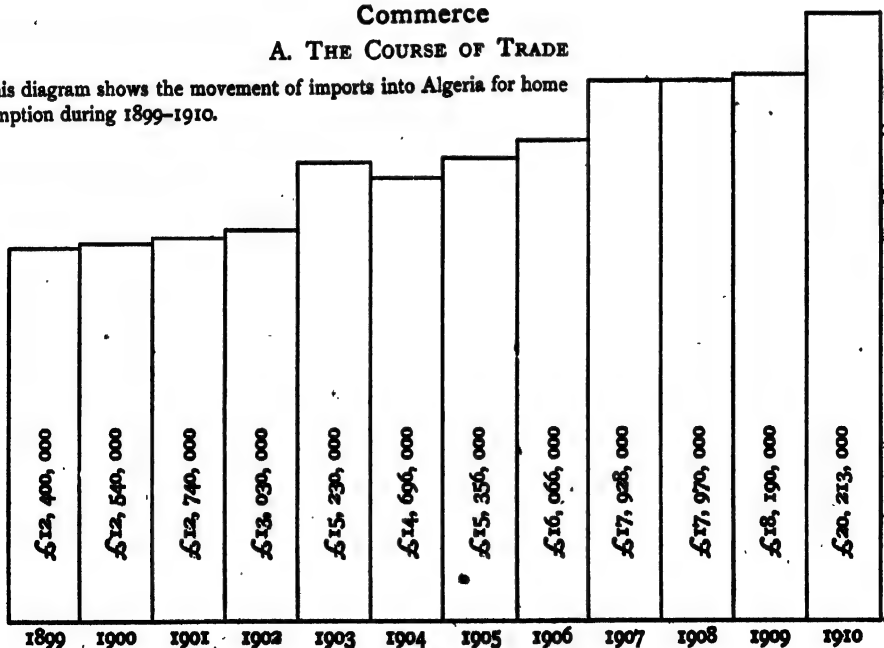
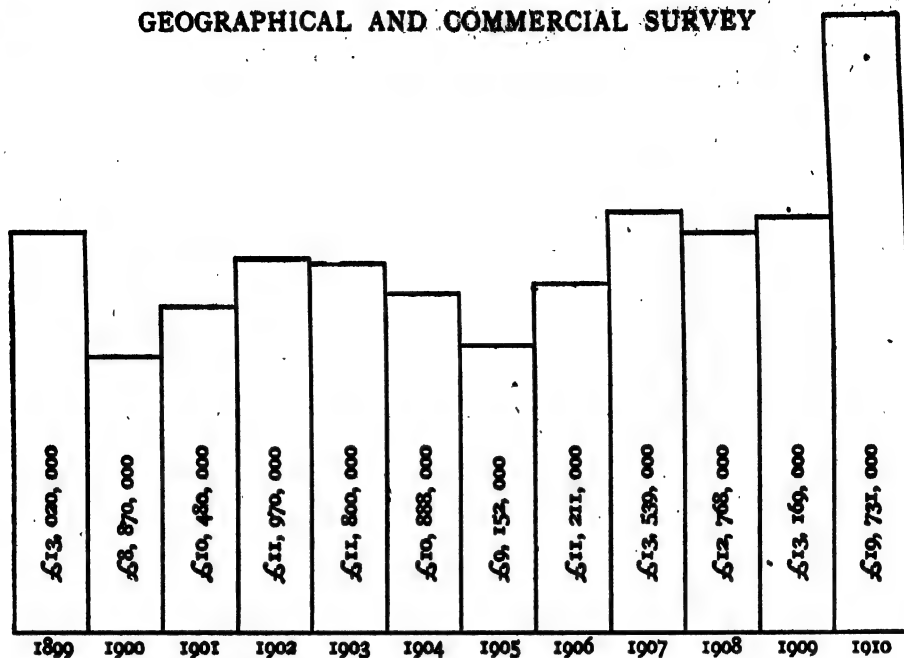
| Sources of Revenue. | Amount, £. |
|---|---|
| Direct Taxation | 497,000 |
| Indirect Taxation— | |
| Registration | 171,000 |
| Stamps | 166,000 |
| Customs | 493,000 |
| Other | 323,000 |
| State Domains | 164,000 |
| State Services— | |
| Post-Office | 158,000 |
| Telegraphs and Telephones | 76,000 |
| Receipts *d'ordre* | 127,000 |
| Various Receipts | 29,000 |
| Extraordinary Receipts | 400,000 |
| Total | £2,604,000 |

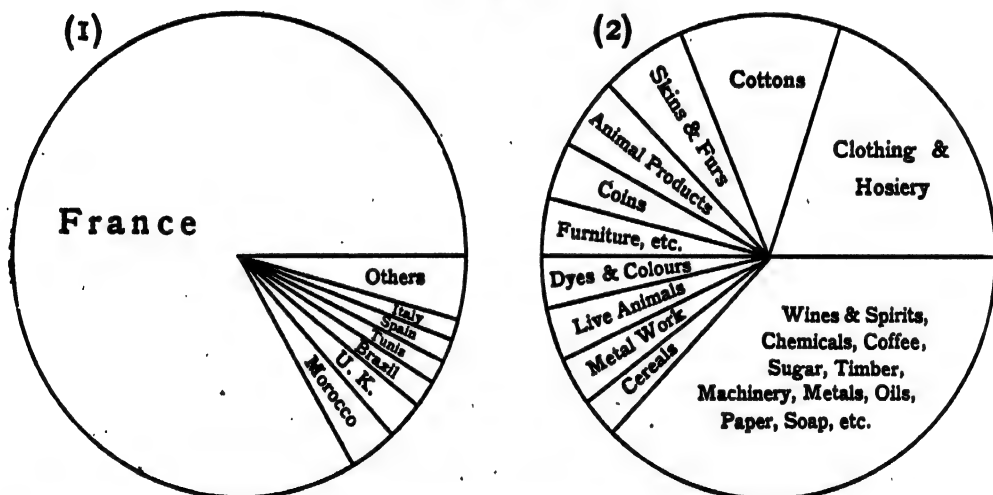
### B. Expenditure

| Heads of Expenditure. | Amount, £ |
|---|---|
| Debt | 47,000 |
| Administration | 290,000 |
| Army, Police, &c. | 130,000 |
| Justice | 100,000 |
| Public Instruction | 230,000 |
| Collection of Taxes, &c. | 272,000 |
| Public Works | 333,000 |
| Agriculture | 27,200 |
| Forests | 121,000 |
| Posts and Telegraphs | 266,000 |
| Commerce | 10,000 |
| Colonization | 80,000 |
| Other Expenses | 296,000 |
| Extraordinary Expenditure | 400,000 |
| Total | £2,602,000 |

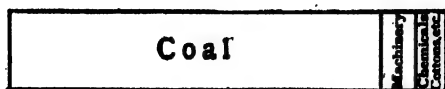
## Commerce

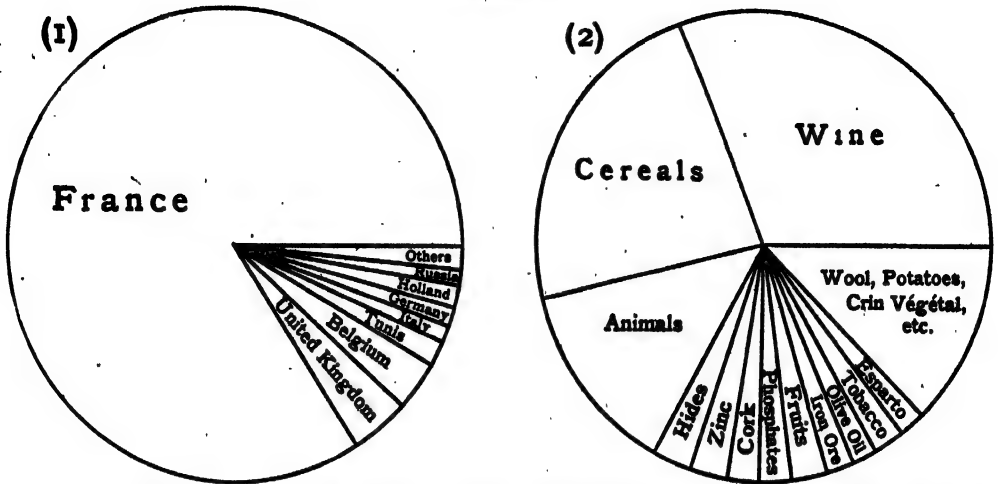
### A. The Course of Trade

This diagram shows the movement of imports into Algeria for home consumption during 1899–1910.

The above diagram shows the movement of exports of native produce from Algeria during 1899–1910.

B. Imports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal countries of origin of the imports into Algeria, and (2) the principal commodities imported into Algeria and their relative value.

Of the commodities imported into Algeria the following are obtained mainly or entirely from France:—Clothing and Hosiery, Cottons, Butter, Skins and Furs, Furniture, Horses, Cereals, Wines, Coffee, Sugar, Machinery, Metals, Paper, Pottery, Woollens, Silks, Soap.

The following are supplied entirely or mainly from other countries:—Oxen and Sheep (Morocco and Tunis), Cheese (Holland, Switzerland), Pork (United States), Chemicals (United Kingdom), Olive Oil (Spain), Cotton Oil (United Kingdom), Coal (United Kingdom), Petroleum (United States, Russia), Timber (Norway, &c.), Fezzes (Austria, Tunis), Tobacco (United States, Germany, &c.).

The accompanying diagram shows the principal commodities imported into Algeria from the United Kingdom and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. The total value in a recent year was about £800,000.

## C. Exports

The above diagrams show: (1) the principal countries of destination of the exports from Algeria, and (2) the principal commodities exported from Algeria and their relative value.

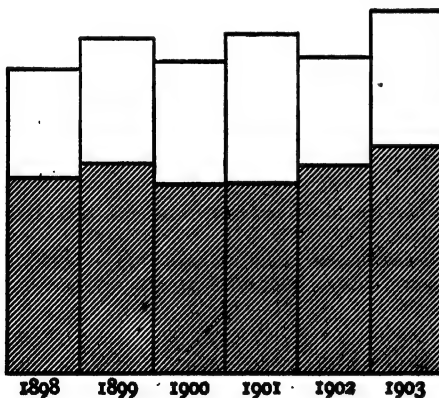
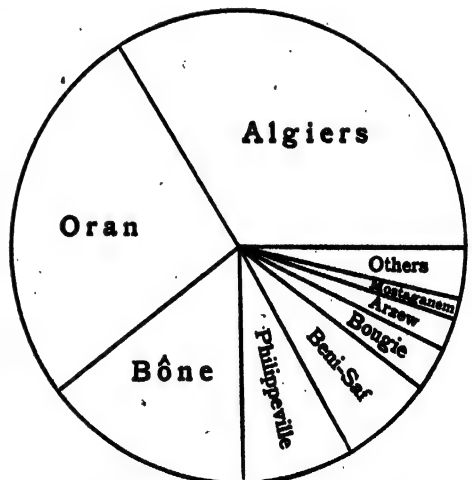
The following exports are sent principally to France:—Wine, Cereals, Live Animals, Olive Oil, Tobacco, Vegetables (early), Fresh Fish.

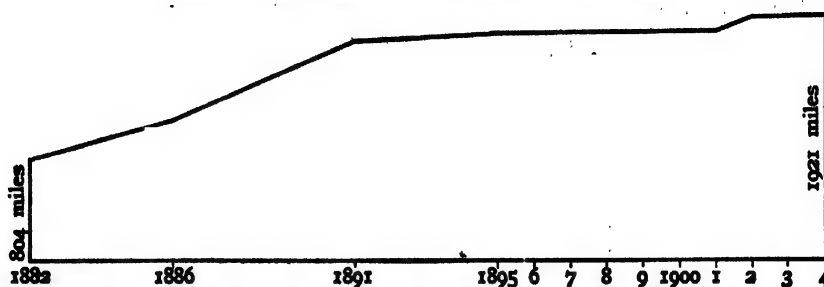
The United Kingdom receives most of the following commodities exported from Algeria:—Goat-skins, Phosphates, Iron Ore (also Holland), Esparto (or Alfa).

Other exports are consigned as follows:—Sheep-skins (Germany), Hides (France, Greece, Belgium, Spain), Wool (France, Germany, Italy), Zinc (Belgium), Cork (France, Russia, Austria, Germany), Crin Végétal or Vegetable Horse-Hair (Germany).

The accompanying diagram shows the principal commodities imported into the United Kingdom from Algeria, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. The total value in a recent year was about £900,000.

Esparto, etc. | Iron Ore | Phosphates | Cork, Hay, Potatoes, etc.

## Shipping and Ports

The above diagram shows the movement of tonnage entered at all Algerian ports during 1898–1903, and also the share falling to the French flag (shown by the shaded part of each rectangle). It should be remembered that the direct trade between France and Algeria is confined by law to French vessels. The total tonnage entered in 1903 was 5,953,159, and in 1910, 5,215,492.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the total tonnage entered among the ports of Algeria, according to the figures of a recent year. The port of Algiers is now the principal Mediterranean coaling-station, and Oran is of growing importance as a depôt for bunker coal.

## Railways, Post-Office, and Telegraphs

The above graph shows the development of the railway system of Algeria during the period 1882–1904. Before 1895 the exact length is shown for only a few dates.

The number of postal packets dealt with in the internal service in a recent year was about 30,000,000; in the external service, over 43,000,000.

The length of telegraph line is now about 9000 miles, and of wire, about 25,000 miles. The annual number of internal messages is about 2,500,000; of international messages, 100,000; and of official messages, over 300,000.

## Administration

The government and administration of Algeria are vested in a Governor-General, resident at Algiers, who represents the sovereignty of the French Republic. He is assisted by ministers of Justice, Public Instruction, Worship, and Finance. He has to prepare a special budget for the colony, and he is empowered to contract loans in its name. Tax-payers have a certain amount of control over the budget through the Financial Delegations, on which they are represented. There are three of these Delegations, representing respectively French colonists, French tax-payers other than colonists, and Mussulman natives. There is also a Superior Council, consisting of official and elected members. Each of the three departments of Algeria elects one senator and two deputies to the National Assembly at Paris, and the sole right of legislating for the colony belongs to the Assembly. The Southern Territories are now organized under a separate administration. They are represented in civil affairs by the Governor-General of Algeria, but they have a separate budget and receive an annual subvention from France. French administration has been of enormous value to Algeria in establishing stable and orderly government, and stimulating economic prosperity and progress. The country is already one of the most valuable parts of Africa, and it has unquestionably a great future.

# TUNIS

## Area and Population

The area of the French protectorate of Tunis is about 51,000 square miles.

The population is close on two millions, distributed racially as follows, according to Sir H. H. Johnston's estimate in the supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*:—

| Races. | Numbers. |
|---|---|
| Berbers (more or less pure) ... ... | 600,000 |
| Arabs (more or less pure) ... ... | 500,000 |
| Mixed Arab-Berbers ... ... ... | 500,000 |
| Moors (in cities; very mixed race) ... | 100,000 |
| Negroes, &c. ... ... ... ... | 40,000 |
| Jews ... ... ... ... ... | 60,000 |
| Europeans ... ... ... ... | 125,000 |

The Europeans are mostly Italian, French, and Maltese.

## Finance

### A. Revenue

Following are the details of the revenue of Tunis according to the Budget of 1903:—

| Sources of Revenue. | Amount, £. |
|---|---|
| Direct Taxes ... ... ... | 315,000 |
| Indirect Taxes ... ... ... | 161,000 |
| Stamps, Registration, &c. ... ... | 66,000 |
| Customs ... ... ... ... | 142,000 |
| Monopolies ... ... ... ... | 264,000 |
| Posts and Telegraphs ... ... | 47,000 |
| State Domains ... ... ... | 46,000 |
| Other Ordinary Receipts ... ... | 45,000 |
| Extraordinary Receipts ... ... | 1,078,000 |
| Total ... ... | £2,164,000 |

### B. Expenditure

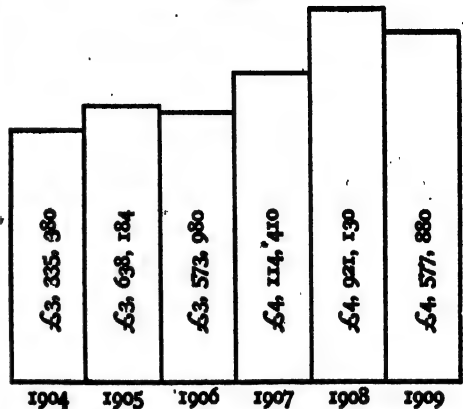
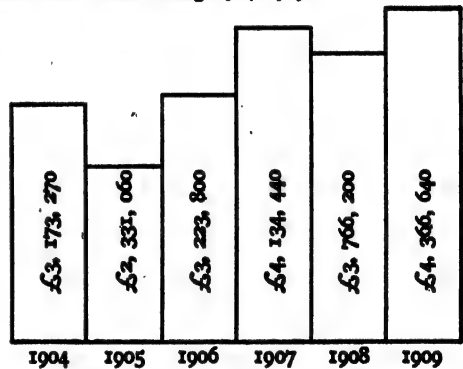
Following are the details of the expenditure of Tunis according to the Budget of 1903:—

| Heads of Expenditure. | Amount, £. |
|---|---|
| Civil List ... ... ... ... | 67,000 |
| Pensions ... ... ... ... | 10,000 |
| Public Debt ... ... ... ... | 276,000 |
| Financial Administration ... ... | 209,000 |
| General Administration ... ... | 152,000 |
| Domains, Commerce, Agriculture | 110,000 |
| Posts and Telegraphs ... ... | 63,000 |
| Public Instruction ... ... ... | 44,000 |
| Army ... ... ... ... | 60,000 |
| Public Works ... ... ... | 1,075,000 |
| Other Expenses ... ... ... | 95,000 |
| Total ... ... | £2,161,000 |

### C. Public Debt

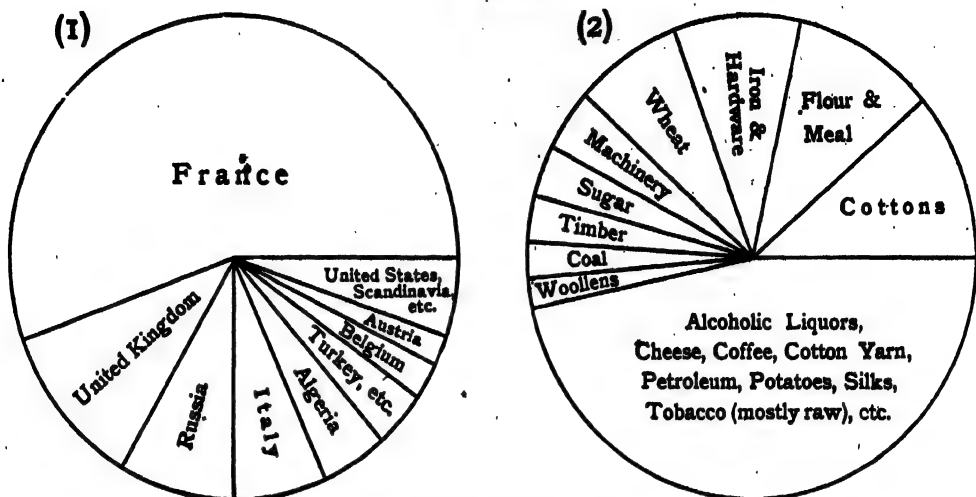
The public debt of Tunis is now about £6,700,000.

## Commerce

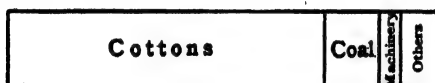
### A. The Course of Trade

The above diagram shows the movement of the imports into Tunis during 1904–1909.

The above diagram shows the movement of exports from Tunis during the period 1904–1909.

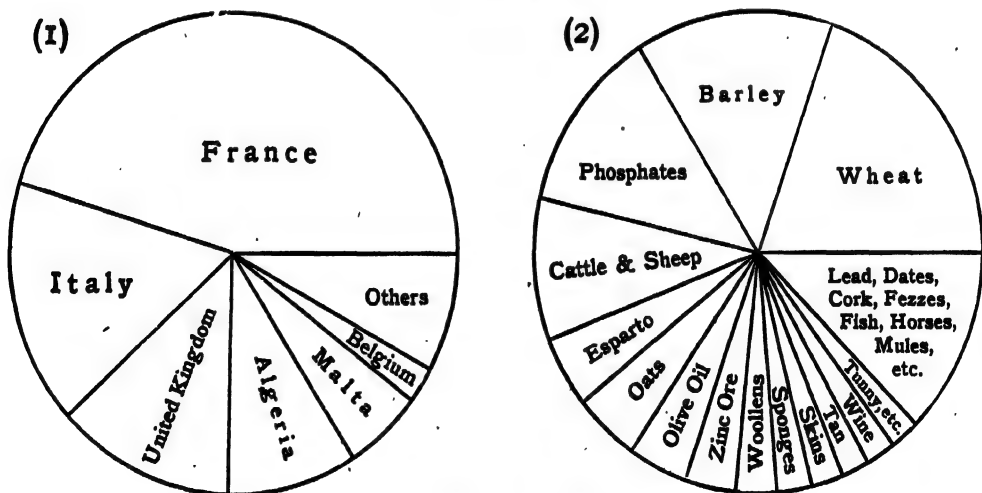
Tunis is principally an agricultural country, but it also produces a considerable quantity of minerals, notably phosphates, zinc, lead, and salt. These facts determine the character of its trade, as the diagrams of the following page show. The exports are principally the products of the soil, with minerals as an important secondary class. The imports are mainly manufactured goods, but they also include some food-stuffs and materials either not produced or not sufficiently produced in the country.

The following diagrams show that Tunis is mainly a commercial dependency of France. It is well, however, to remember that a considerable quantity of British manufactured goods goes to Tunis through France instead of direct. France is favoured by a preferential tariff, but this appears to be only a small factor in the situation, for even before this tariff was introduced France was the principal trader with Tunis to almost the same extent as at present. Italy has also close commercial relations with Tunis. These three countries, France, Italy, and Britain, have amongst them the largest part of the trade of the Regency.

B. IMPORTS

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal countries of origin of the imports into Tunis, and (2) the principal commodities imported into Tunis and their relative value according to recent returns.

The following are the principal sources of the leading commodities imported:—

Cottons (United Kingdom, Italy), Flour and Meal (France, Italy), Iron and Hardware (France, United Kingdom), Wheat (Russia), Machinery (France, United States, United Kingdom), Sugar (France), Coal (United Kingdom), Woollens (France, United Kingdom, Turkey), Timber (Italy, Austria, Sweden, United States), Wines, &c. (France chiefly), Cheese (France, Italy, Switzerland), Coffee (Brazil and Guatemala), Cotton Yarn (United Kingdom, France, Italy), Petroleum (France, Russia, United States), Potatoes (France, Italy), Silks (France, Turkey), Raw Tobacco (Belgium, United States, Greece).

The accompanying diagram shows the principal commodities exported from the United Kingdom to Tunis, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. Total value in a recent year, about £400,000

C. EXPORTS

The above diagrams show: (1) the principal countries of destination of the exports from Tunis, and (2) the principal commodities exported from Tunis with their relative values according to recent returns.

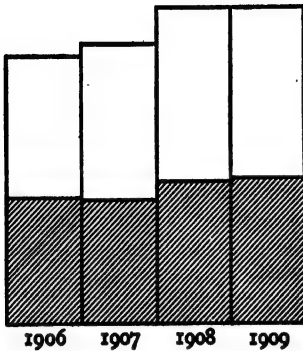
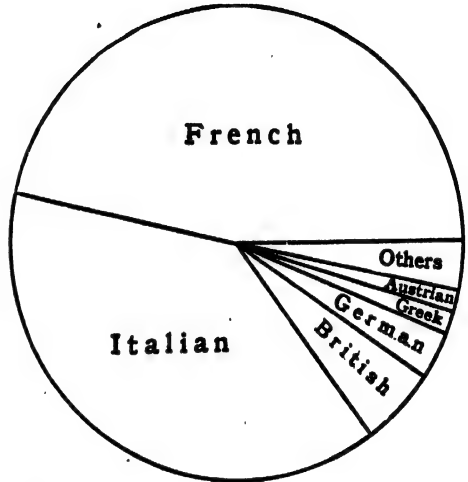
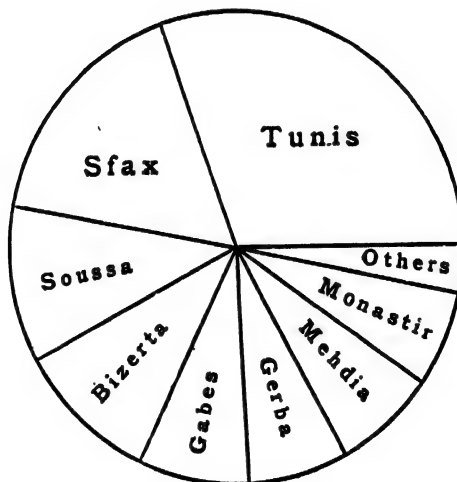
The principal destinations of the more important exports from Tunis are as follows:—

Wheat (France, United Kingdom, Algeria), Barley (France), Phosphates (France, United Kingdom, Italy, Germany), Cattle and Sheep (Malta), Esparto (United Kingdom), Oats (France), Olive Oil (France), Zinc

(Belgium, United Kingdom), Woollens (Tripoli, Egypt, Algeria), Sponges (Italy, Belgium, Greece), Skins (France, Algeria, United States), Tan (Italy, Portugal), Wine (France), Tunnies (Italy, Malta), Lead (France, Spain, Algeria).

The accompanying diagram shows the principal commodities imported into the United Kingdom from Tunis, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. Total value in a recent year, about £700,000.

| Esparto, etc. | Phosphates | Barley | Zinc | Others |
|---|---|---|---|---|

## Shipping and Ports

The above diagram shows the movement of tonnage entered at all Tunisian ports during 1906–1909. The shaded portion of each rectangle represents the French share of the tonnage entered. The total tonnage entered in 1909 was 4,156,119, the French share being 1,925,782.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution among the principal flags concerned of the tonnage entered at the Tunisian ports in a recent year. Italy leads for the ports of Sfax, Gabes, Mehdia, Monastir, and Gerba, France for the others.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the total tonnage entered among the principal ports of Tunis, according to the returns of a recent year.

# BRITISH WEST AFRICA

## Area and Population

| Divisions. | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population. |
|---|---|---|
| Gambia (Crown Colony) ... ... | 69 ... | 13,461 (1901) |
| Gambia Protectorate | 3,057 ... | 154,911 (1903) |
| Sierra Leone (Cr. Col.) ... ... | 4,000 ... | 76,655 (1901) |
| Sierra Leone Protectorate ... ... | 30,000 ... | 949,827 (1903) |
| Gold Coast (Cr. Col.) Gold Coast Protectorate (Ashanti and Northern Territories) ... ... | 119,260 ... | 1,486,433 (1901) |
| Southern Nigeria (Cr. Colony and Protectorate) ... | 77,260 ... | 4,500,000 |
| Northern Nigeria (Prot.) ... ... | 256,400 ... | 10,000,000 |
| Total ... | 490,050 ... | 17,200,000 (round) |

In 1906 the former crown colony and protectorate of Lagos was united with the former protectorate of Southern Nigeria, and the whole territory is now a crown colony and protectorate under the name of Southern Nigeria, with Lagos as its capital.

## Finance

The following table shows the revenue and expenditure of the British West African colonies according to recent returns:—

| Colony. | Revenue. | Expenditure. |
|---|---|---|
| Gambia ... ... | £51,868 ... | £72,297 |
| Sierra Leone ... ... | 281,523 ... | 225,958 |
| Gold Coast ... ... | 586,221 ... | 596,119 |
| Southern Nigeria ... | 960,484 ... | 884,067 |
| Northern Nigeria ... | 508,727 ... | 520,545 |
| Total ... | £2,388,823 ... | £2,298,986 |

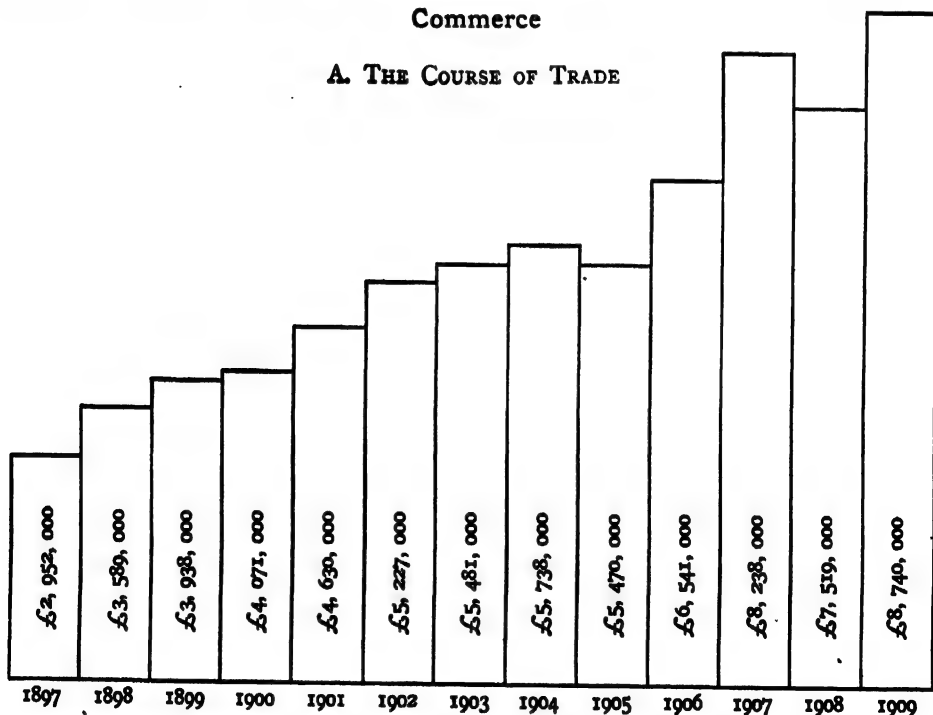
The revenue from Customs Duties is as follows, according to recent returns:—

Gambia, £35,054; Sierra Leone, £143,538; Gold Coast, £334,111; Southern Nigeria, £715,705; Northern Nigeria, £68,900; total, £1,297,308.

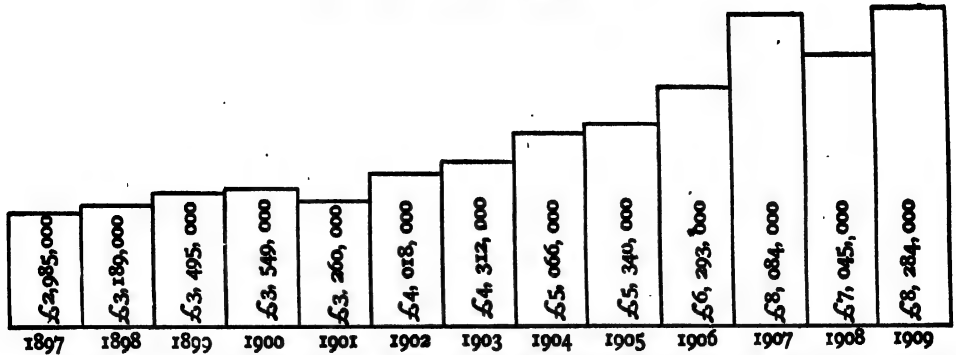
The following table shows the public debt of British West Africa:—

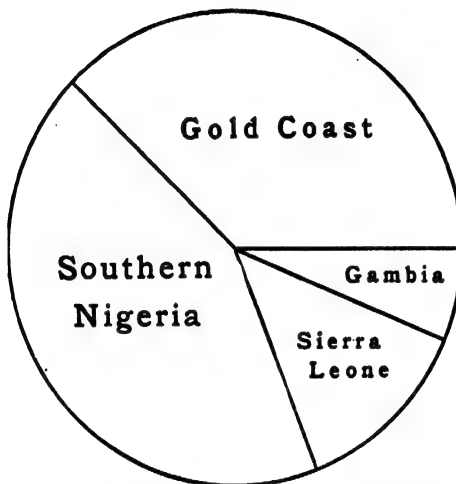
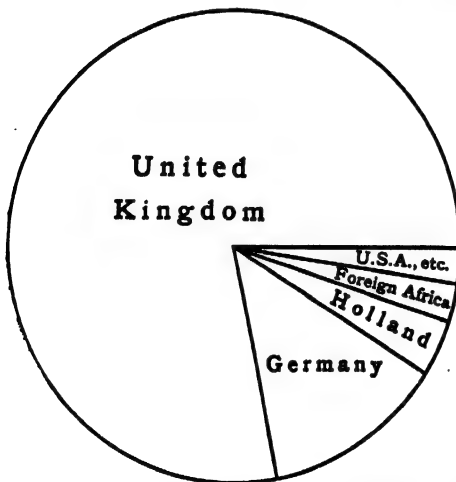
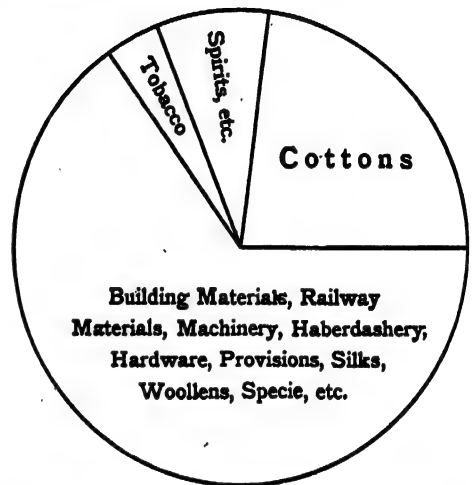
| Colony. | Public Debt. |
|---|---|
| Sierra Leone ... ... ... | £1,277,129 |
| Gold Coast ... ... ... | 2,248,159 |
| Southern Nigeria ... ... ... | 2,000,000 |
| Total ... ... ... | £5,525,288 |

## Commerce

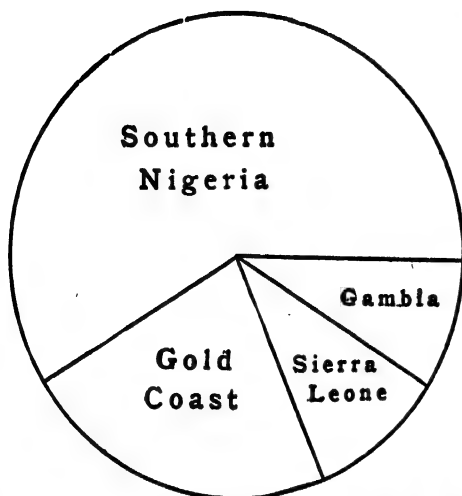
### A. The Course of Trade

The above diagram shows the movement of the imports of British West Africa during the period 1897–1909. The colonies included are Gambia, Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, and Southern and Northern Nigeria. Duplicate entries are excluded as ar fas possible.

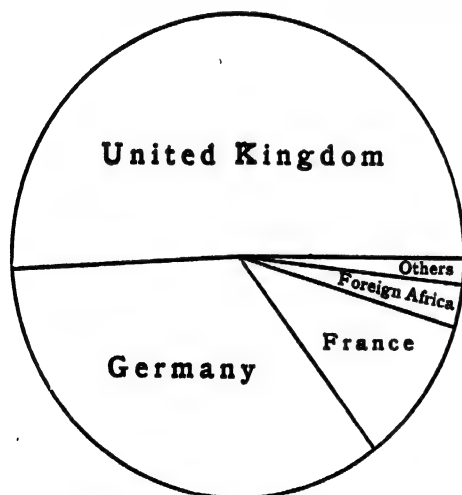
£2,985,000 £3,189,000 £3,495,000 £3,549,000 £3,260,000 £4,018,000 £4,312,000 £5,066,000 £5,340,000 £6,293,800 £8,084,000 £7,045,000 £8,284,000

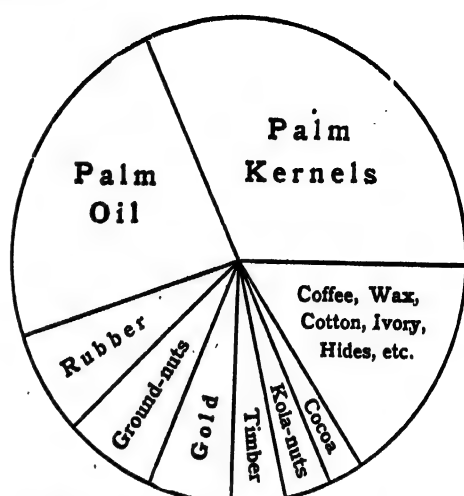
1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909

The above diagram shows the movement of the exports of British West Africa during 1897–1909. The scale is half that of the preceding diagram.

B. IMPORTS

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the imports of British West Africa among the various political divisions, according to the returns of a recent year.

The above circle diagram shows the principal countries of origin of the imports into British West Africa (intercolonial trade excluded). Gambia is not taken into account in this connection.

The above circle diagram shows the principal commodities imported into British West Africa, and their relative value according to the returns of a recent year.

The above diagrams show the principal commodities exported from the United Kingdom to each of the divisions of British West Africa, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns for a recent year.

## C. Exports

The above circle diagram shows the shares of the political divisions of British West Africa in the total export trade. No allowance is made for intercolonial trade.

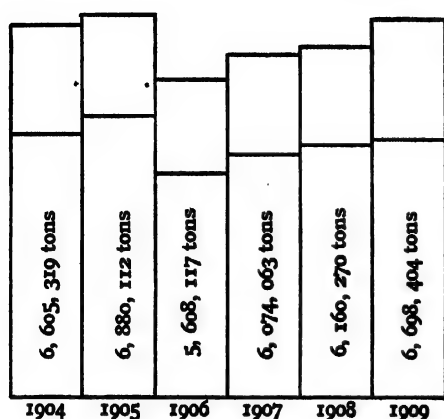
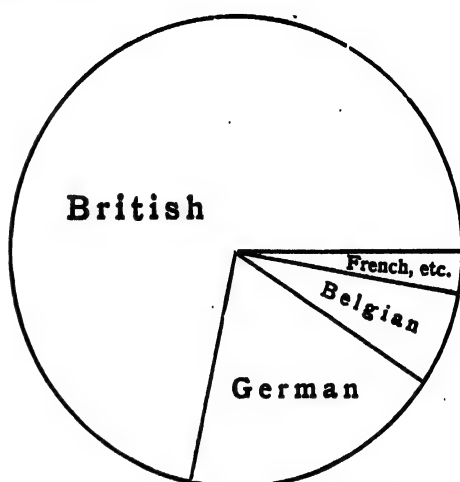
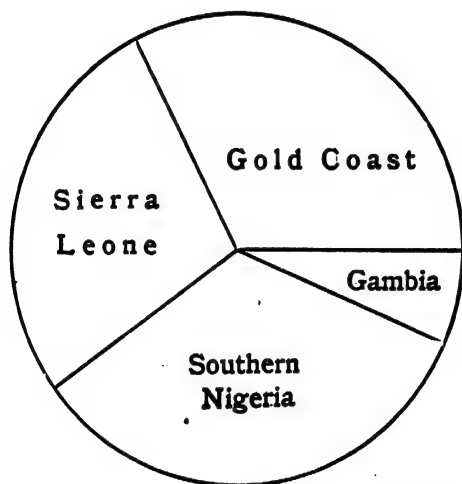
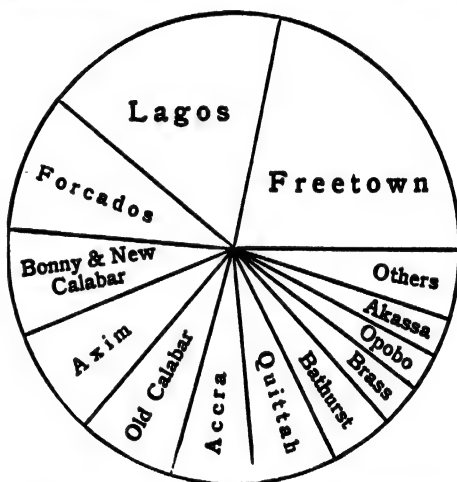
By comparing this diagram with the corresponding one on the preceding page under Imports, it will be seen that Southern Nigeria leads in both imports and exports, but that its lead over the Gold Coast in the former is not great. Southern Nigeria, since its extension to include Lagos, is unquestionably the chief commercial division of West Africa. Gambia is much the least important division commercially, and its trade is mainly in French hands.

The above circle diagram shows the principal destinations of the exports of British West Africa (intercolonial trade excluded). Germany leads in Southern Nigeria and Sierra Leone, France in Gambia.

The United Kingdom leads in both imports and exports for British West Africa, but its lead is much more decided in the case of imports than in the case of exports. Germany comes next in both cases, and her trade with the countries of this coast is of great and increasing importance.

The above diagram shows the principal commodities exported from British West Africa, and their relative value according to the returns of a recent year. Palm kernels are the chief export of Lagos and Sierra Leone; palm oil, of Southern Nigeria; gold and palm oil, of the Gold Coast; ground-nuts, of Gambia.

The oil-palm is the principal commercial plant of West Africa at present. Cotton, as the diagram shows, is still a minor export, but it is very probable that the cotton export will one day be a leading one, perhaps the leading one.

The above diagrams show the principal commodities imported into the United Kingdom from the divisions of British West Africa, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns for a recent year.

From her possessions on the Guinea coast Britain receives palm-oil, palm kernels, ground-nuts, ivory, certain kinds of timber, rubber, cotton, hides, and a few other commodities, and to them she sends various manufactures, notably cottons.

## Shipping and Ports

The above diagram shows the movement of tonnage entered and cleared at the ports of British West Africa during the period 1904–1909. The lower part of each rectangle represents the British share of the tonnage.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the total tonnage entered and cleared at the ports of British West Africa among the principal flags concerned.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution among the political divisions of British West Africa of the total tonnage of shipping entered and cleared.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution of the tonnage entered at the ports of British West Africa among the chief ports concerned.

# BRITISH EAST AFRICA

## THE ZANZIBAR PROTECTORATE

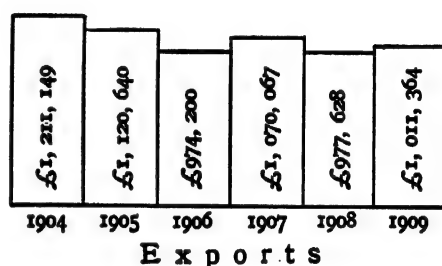
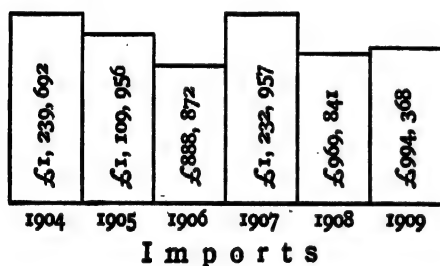
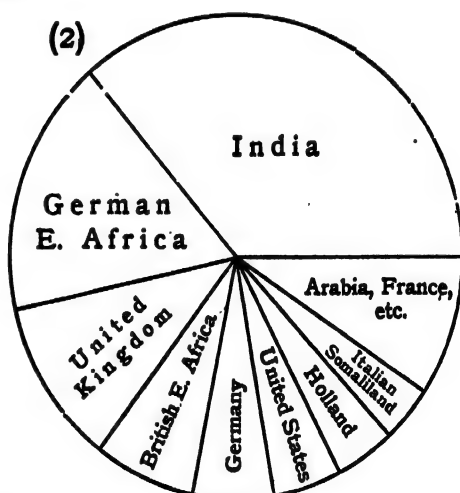
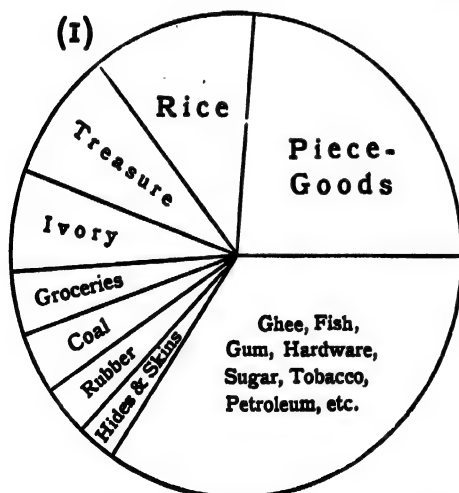
### Finance

The following table shows the revenue, expenditure, and public debt in 1893, 1898, 1903, and 1905:—

| Years. | | Revenue. | | Expenditure. | | Public Debt. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1893 | ... | £74,336 | ... | £72,706 | ... | — |
| 1898 | ... | 127,528 | ... | 121,335 | ... | £48,000 |
| 1903 | ... | 148,590 | ... | 121,429 | ... | 95,333 |
| 1905 | ... | 177,568 | ... | 159,862 | ... | 90,668 |

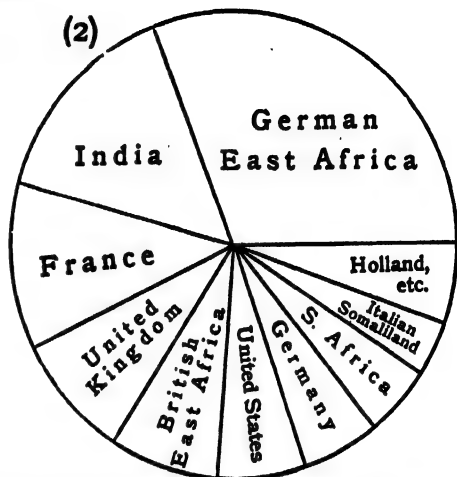
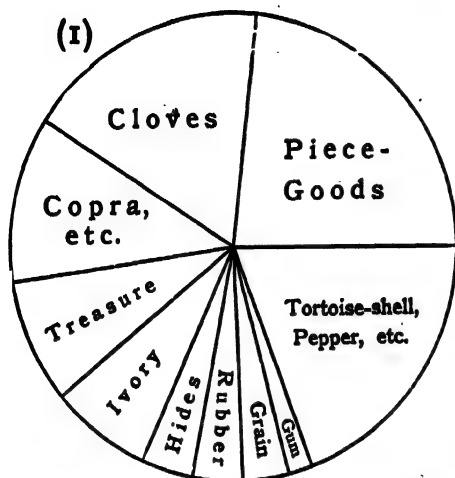
### Commerce

#### A. The Course of Trade

The following diagrams show the movement of the total imports and exports of the port of Zanzibar during 1904–1909:—

#### B. Imports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal commodities imported into Zanzibar and their relative value according to recent returns, and (2) the principal countries of origin of the Zanzibar imports.

| Cottons | Iron | Tobacco, Provisions, Machinery, Soap, etc. |
|---|---|---|

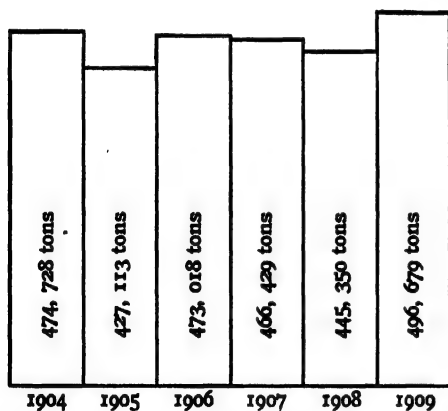
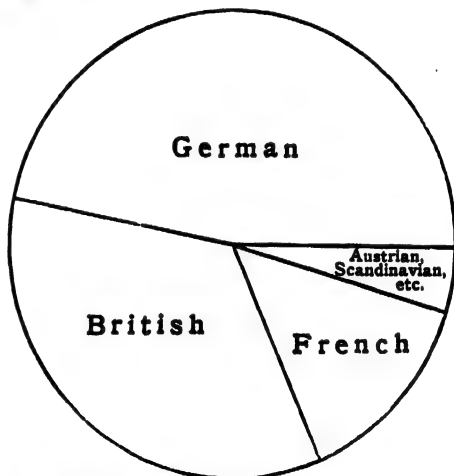
The accompanying diagram shows the principal commodities exported to Zanzibar and Pemba from the United Kingdom, and their relative value according to Board of Trade Returns. Total value, about £120,000.

### C. Exports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal commodities exported from Zanzibar and their relative value according to recent returns, and (2) the principal countries of destination of the Zanzibar exports. A comparison of circle (1) above with circle (1) under *Imports* will show that the trade of Zanzibar is largely transit.

The accompanying diagram shows the principal commodities imported into the United Kingdom from Zanzibar and Pemba, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. Total value in a recent year, about £217,000.

| Spices | Ivory | Rubber | Gum | Others |
|---|---|---|---|---|

### Shipping

| 474, 728 tons | 427, 113 tons | 473, 018 tons | 466, 429 tons | 445, 350 tons | 496, 679 tons |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1904 | 1905 | 1906 | 1907 | 1908 | 1909 |

The above diagram shows the movement of tonnage entered at the port of Zanzibar in the foreign trade during 1904–1909.

The above circle diagram shows the distribution among the chief flags concerned of the tonnage entered at Zanzibar in a recent year.

## BRITISH EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE, UGANDA PROTECTORATE, AND SOMALILAND PROTECTORATE

### BRITISH EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE

Area, 177,000 sq. miles; Population, about 4,000,000.
Provinces and their Capitals: Seyyidieh (cap. Mombasa), Ukamba (Nairobi), Tanaland (Lamu), Jubaland (Kismayu), Kenya (Fort Hall), Naivasha (Naivasha), Kisumu (Kisumu or Port Florence)
Revenue, £270,000; Expenditure, £420,000.

Productions: rice, maize, cotton, tobacco, potatoes, coffee, wheat, barley, cocoa-nuts, rubber, gum, timber, iron and other minerals (some only to a small extent).
Imports: £670,000; Exports, £320,000.
Chief Imports: piece-goods, provisions, grain, spirits and wines, building materials, tobacco, coal, hardware.
Chief Exports: ivory, hides, horns, grain, rubber, copra.
Imports chiefly from India, United Kingdom, Germany.
Exports chiefly to Zanzibar, East African ports, Aden, United Kingdom, United States.

### UGANDA PROTECTORATE

Area, 223,500 sq. miles; Population, 4,000,000.
Provinces: Central, Rudolf, Nile, Western, and Kingdom of Uganda. Last under a king or kabaka
Revenue, £80,000; Expenditure, £200,000.
Imports, £210,000; Exports, £110,000.
Chief Imports: piece-goods, groceries, floor-cloth, corrugated iron, spirits, tobacco.
Chief Exports: ivory, skins, rubber, hides, coffee.
Imports chiefly from the United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, India, the Congo State.
Exports all through the East Africa Protectorate by the recently constructed railway (so-called Uganda Railway).

### SOMALILAND PROTECTORATE

Area, 68,000 sq. miles; Population, 300,000.
Revenue, £50,000; Expenditure, £100,000.
Imports, £300,000; Exports, £220,000.
Chief Imports: rice, dates, flour, and piece-goods.
Chief Exports: skins, sheep and goats, coffee, gums and resins, ostrich feathers, ivory.
Imports chiefly from Aden and India; Exports chiefly to Aden.
Shipping entered and cleared at Zeila, Berbera, and Bulhar, 100,000 tons (seven-tenths British). Other ports are Hais and Karam.

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# BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA

## NYASALAND PROTECTORATE

Area, 41,000 sq. miles; Population, about 1,000,000.
Revenue, £80,000; Expenditure, £110,000.
Productions: coffee, tobacco, cotton, rice, wheat, oats, barley, &c.
Imports, £220,000; Exports, £50,000. Transit trade not included (£30,000 imported and £10,000 exported).
Chief Imports: piece-goods, provisions, hardware, arms, spirits.
Chief Exports: coffee, cotton, ivory, rubber, tobacco, strophanthus, bees'-wax, chillies, earth-nuts.
Principal Sources of Imports: United Kingdom (five-sixths), Germany, India.
Principal Destinations of Exports: United Kingdom (three-quarters), Germany, East Africa.

## RHODESIA

Area and population very imperfectly known. Total area, about 431,270 sq. miles; total population, about 1,500,000. Southern Rhodesia: area, 144,000 sq. miles; population, 600,000.
Divisions: Southern Rhodesia (Mashonaland and Matabeleland), North-Eastern Rhodesia, and North-Western Rhodesia (Barotseland).
Productions: various vegetable and mineral products in small quantities, notably gold. Gold output for a recent year, about 407,000 ozs. Coal also worked.
Imports into Southern Rhodesia, £1,200,000 or upwards per annum. Exports much smaller in value.
The territory is administered by the British South Africa Company, which has a royal charter. Southern Rhodesia is included in the South African Customs Union.

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# CAPE COLONY

## Area and Population

| Divisions. | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population, 1904. |
|---|---|---|
| The Colony Proper | 191,540 | 1,243,446 |
| Griqualand West | 15,080 | 108,362 |
| East Griqualand | 7,600 | 353,830 |
| Tembuland | 4,360 | 231,151 |
| Pondoland | 3,920 | 202,809 |
| Transkei | 2,550 | 177,647 |
| British Bechuanaland | 51,520 | 84,210 |
| Walfish Bay | 430 | 1,015 |
| Islands | — | 89 |
| Others | — | 2,993 |
| | 277,000 | 2,405,552 |

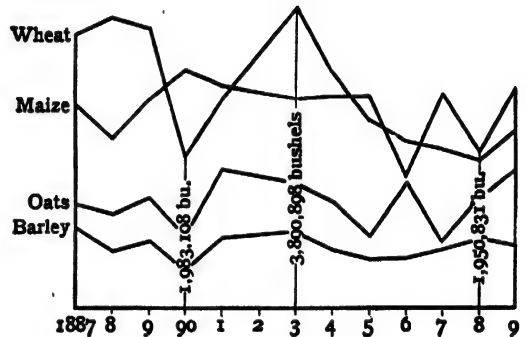
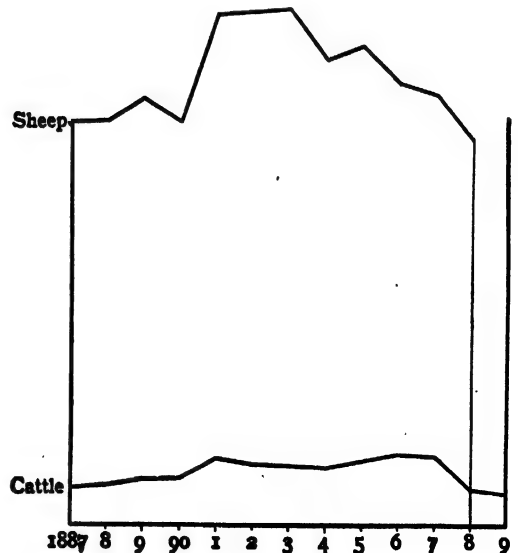
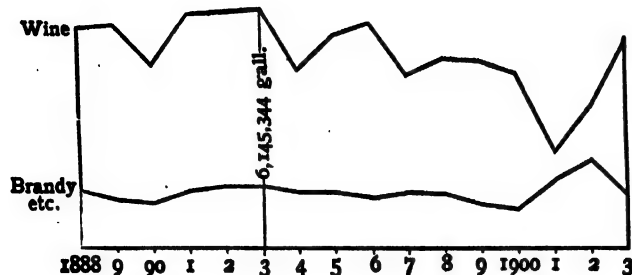
## Population according to Race

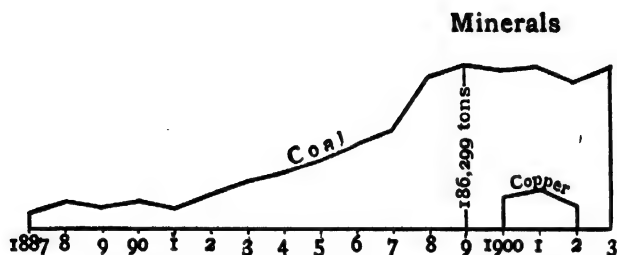
| Races. | Number, 1904. |
|---|---|
| European or White | 580,380 |
| Coloured | 1,825,172 |
| Total | 2,405,552 |

## Population according to Religion

| Religions. | Number, 1904. |
|---|---|
| Dutch Reformed | 399,487 |
| Methodists | 290,232 |
| Church of England | 281,433 |
| Congregationalists | 112,202 |
| Presbyterians | 88,653 |
| Lutherans | 37,041 |
| Moravians | 23,079 |
| Rhenish Mission | 20,782 |
| Baptists | 14,105 |
| Other Protestants | 38,439 |
| Total Protestants | 1,305,453 |
| Roman Catholics | 37,069 |
| Mohammedans | 22,623 |
| Jews | 19,537 |
| No Religion (Pagans chiefly) | 1,015,760 |
| Total | 2,400,442 |

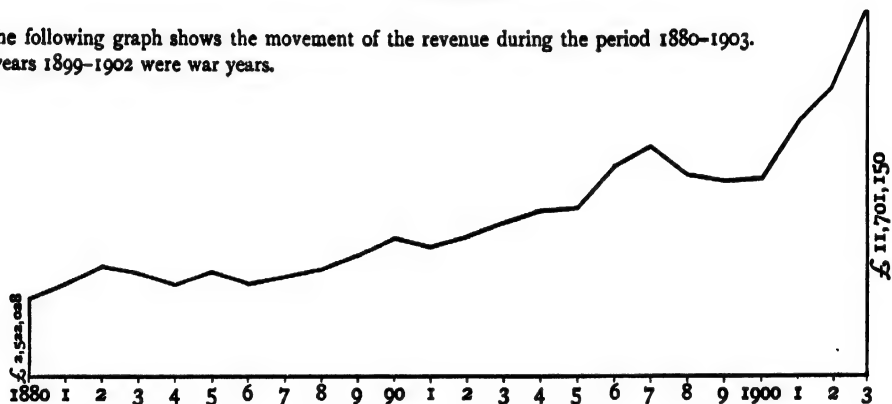
## Agriculture

The accompanying graphs show the output of wheat, maize, oats, and barley in Cape Colony during the period 1887-1899. There were no returns for the year 1892, and there have been none since 1899, except for the census year, 1904, when the output was as follows: wheat, 1,701,800 bushels; maize, 3,395,126 bushels; oats, 2,427,007 bushels; barley, 920,464 bushels.

The accompanying graphs show the variation in the number of sheep and cattle in Cape Colony during the period 1887-1899. There were no returns for sheep in 1892, and there were none during 1898-1904 also; and returns are wanting for cattle in 1893 and 1899-1904. The number of sheep was 12,639,992 in 1898, of cattle 1,077,044 in 1899. According to the Census of 1904 the number of animals in the colony was as follows: sheep, 11,796,790; cattle, 1,953,126; horses and mules, 419,018; Angora and other goats, 7,160,321; pigs, 385,318; ostriches, 357,893.

The accompanying diagram shows the output of wine and brandy in Cape Colony during the period 1888–1903. There are no returns for wine for the year 1892. 1899-1902 were war years. The output in 1904 was: wine, 5,686,672 gall.; brandy, &c., 1,534,070 gall. The number of vine-stocks in 1904 was 77,893,187.

## Minerals

The accompanying graphs show the output of coal and copper during 1887–1903 and 1900–1902 respectively. The output of coal in 1905 was 146,529 tons, and of copper ore, 94,854 tons.

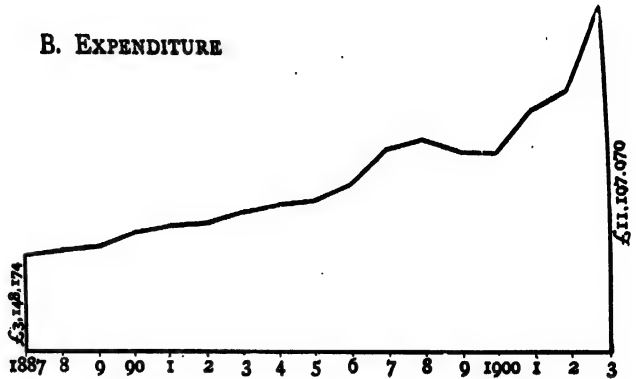
## Finance

### A. Revenue

The following graph shows the movement of the revenue during the period 1880–1903. The years 1899–1902 were war years.

The details of the revenue of Cape Colony were as follows in a recent year:—

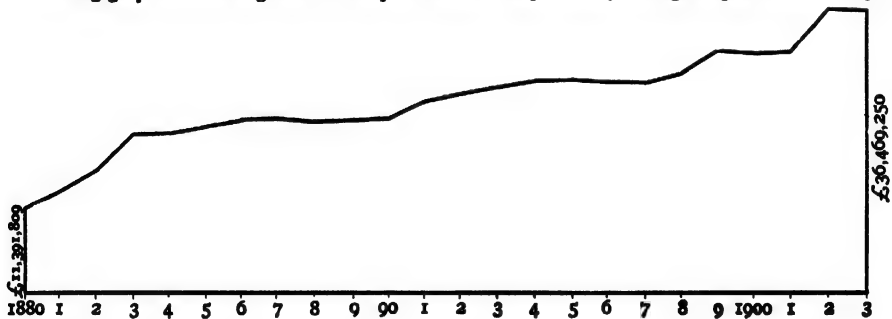
| Sources of Revenue. | Amount. |
|---|---|
| Customs ... ... ... ... | £2,710,118 |
| Land Revenue ... ... ... | 115,055 |
| Hut Tax ... ... ... ... | 94,396 |
| Other Taxes ... ... ... | 226,246 |
| Stamps ... ... ... ... | 423,217 |
| Sale of Public Properties ... | 147,987 |
| Mines ... ... ... ... | 29,504 |
| Interest, &c. ... ... ... | 132,038 |
| Railways ... ... ... ... | 4,106,998 |
| Post-Office ... ... ... | 484,915 |
| Telegraphs ... ... ... | 323,941 |
| Other Receipts ... ... ... | 255,956 |
| Total Ordinary ... | £9,050,371 |
| Extraordinary ... | 2,235,326 |
| Grand Total ... | £11,285,697 |

## B. Expenditure

The accompanying graph shows the movement of the expenditure of Cape Colony during 1887–1903. The expenditure on public works out of loans is not included. The years 1899–1902 were war years.

The following are the details of the expenditure for a recent year:—

| Heads of Expenditure. | Amount. |
|---|---|
| Debt ... ... ... ... | £1,513,716 |
| Administration ... ... ... | 242,541 |
| Legislation ... ... ... | 11,318 |
| Medical ... ... ... ... | 450,054 |
| Public Instruction ... ... | 289,821 |
| Justice and Police ... ... | 849,016 |
| Public Lands ... ... ... | 213,673 |
| Railways ... ... ... ... | 3,227,182 |
| Telegraphs ... ... ... | 251,145 |
| Post-Office ... ... ... | 418,102 |
| Public Construction ... ... | 199,697 |
| Natives ... ... ... ... | 317,598 |
| Militia and Defence ... ... | 302,124 |
| Other Expenses ... ... ... | 331,639 |
| Total Ordinary ... ... | 8,617,626 |
| Extraordinary ... ... | 3,333,119 |
| Grand Total... ... ... | £11,950,745 |

## C. Public Debt

The following graph shows the growth of the public debt of Cape Colony during the period 1880–1903:—

The public debt of Cape Colony stood as follows at the beginning of 1903:—

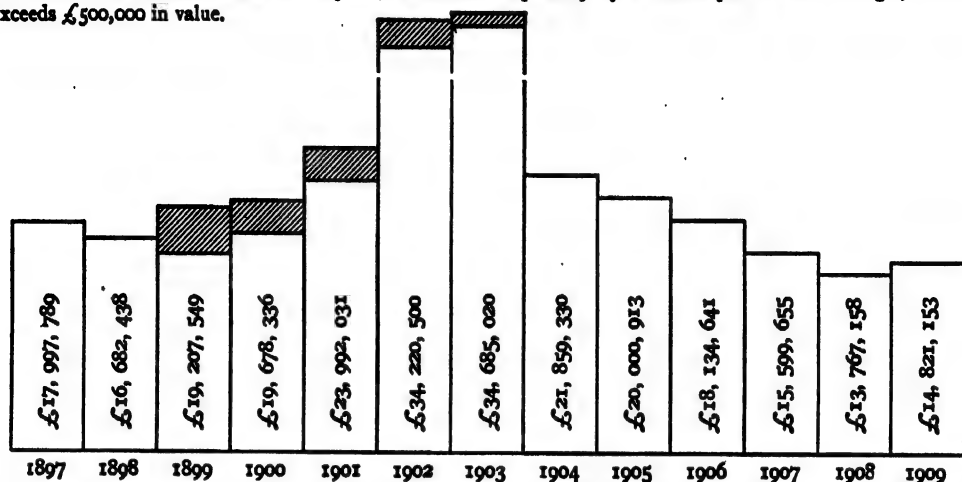
| Kind of Debt. | Amount. |
|---|---|
| No interest ... ... ... | £8,500 |
| 3 per cent ... ... ... | 8,357,500 |
| 3½ per cent ... ... ... | 9,277,878 |
| 4 per cent ... ... ... | 16,781,013 |
| 4½ per cent ... ... ... | 1,886,638 |
| 5 per cent ... ... ... | 659,400 |
| Total ... ... ... | £36,970,929 |

## Commerce

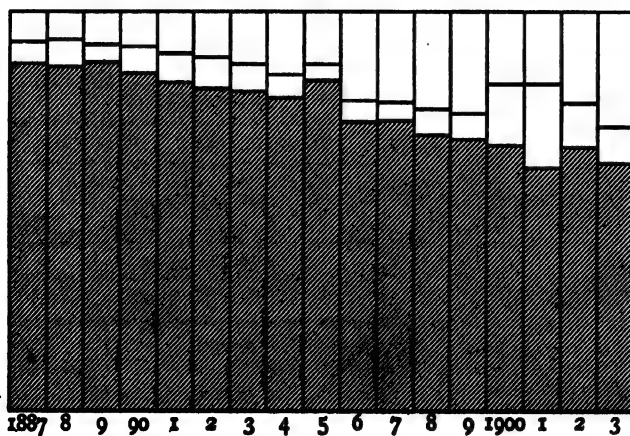
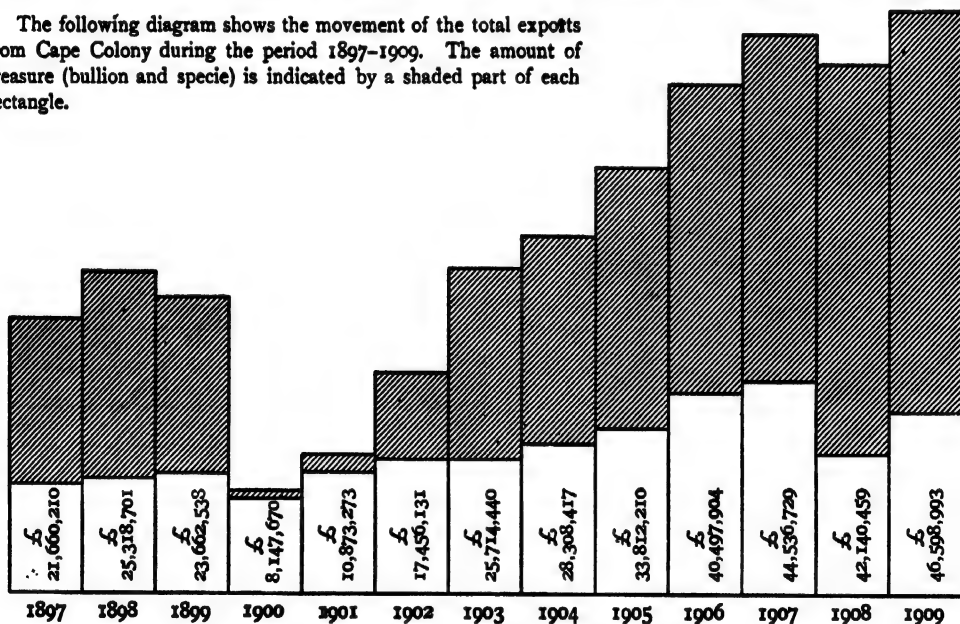
### A. The Course of Trade

The following diagram shows the movement of the total imports into Cape Colony during the period 1897–1909. The amount of treasure (bullion and specie) is indicated separately by a shaded part of the rectangle, where it exceeds £500,000 in value.

£17, 997, 789
£16, 682, 438
£19, 207, 549
£19, 678, 336
£23, 992, 031
£34, 220, 500
£34, 685, 020
£21, 859, 330
£20, 000, 913
£18, 134, 641
£15, 599, 655
£13, 767, 158
£14, 821, 153

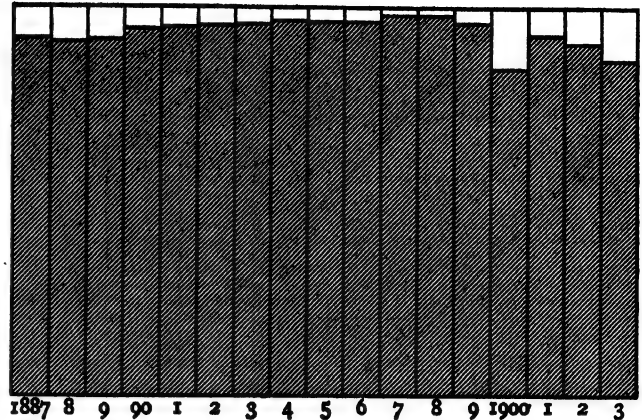
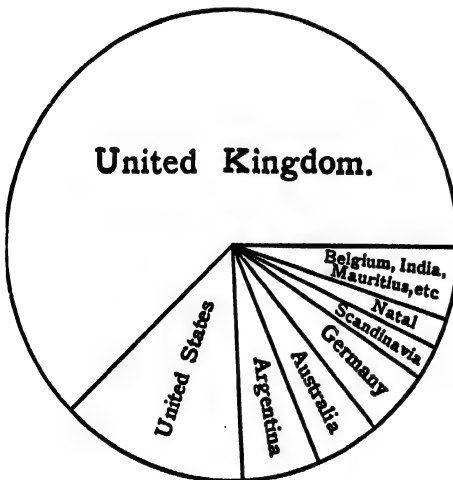
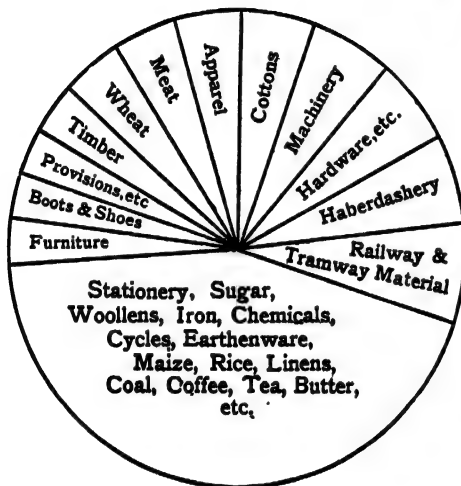
1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909

The following diagram shows the movement of the total exports from Cape Colony during the period 1897–1909. The amount of treasure (bullion and specie) is indicated by a shaded part of each rectangle.

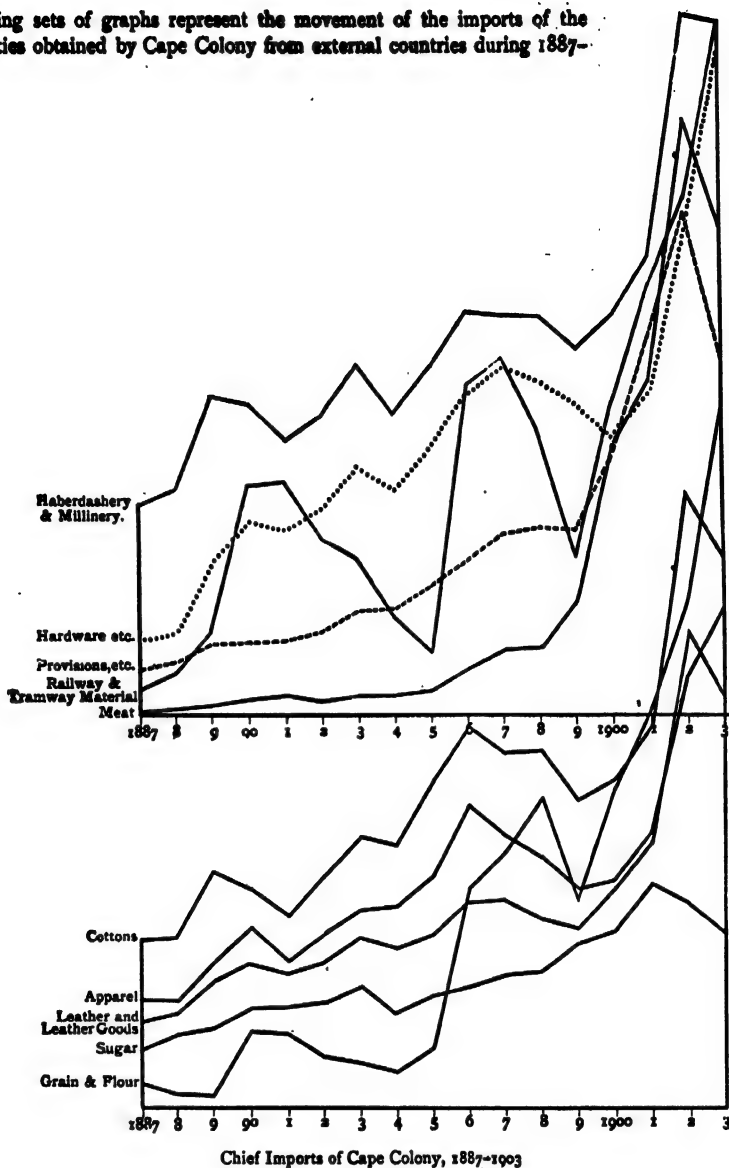
£ 21,660,210
£ 25,318,701
£ 23,662,538
£ 8,147,670
£ 10,873,273
£ 17,450,131
£ 25,714,440
£ 28,308,417
£ 33,812,210
£ 40,497,904
£ 44,536,729
£ 42,140,459
£ 46,598,993

1897 1898 1899 1900 1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909

The accompanying diagram shows the share of the United Kingdom and British possessions in the import trade of Cape Colony in each year from 1887 to 1903 inclusive. The shaded part of each rectangle represents the British share, and the middle division the share of the British possessions. The diagram shows at a glance that the United Kingdom's share in the import trade of Cape Colony has been, on the whole, declining during the period chosen. The share of other British possessions has latterly tended to increase, but Germany and America have been the chief countries to benefit at Britain's expense.

The accompanying diagram shows the share of the United Kingdom in the export trade of Cape Colony in each year from 1887 to 1903 inclusive. The shaded part of each rectangle represents the British share. The diagram shows that Britain still takes by far the largest part of the commodities exported from the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, indeed all but a trifling proportion. Britain's share of the exports has not declined in the same way as her share of the imports, and at present she has a much stronger position in the export than in the import branch of the trade of Cape Colony.

## B. Imports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal commodities imported into Cape Colony, and their relative value according to the returns of a recent year; and (2) the principal countries of origin of the imports into Cape Colony.

The following diagram shows the principal countries of origin of each of the chief commodities imported into Cape Colony, and the relative importance of the countries in each case:—

| Commodity | Countries of origin |
|---|---|
| Haberdashery & Millinery | United Kingdom |
| Cottons | United Kingdom |
| Railway & Tramway Materials | United Kingdom; U.S.A. etc. |
| Hardware | United Kingdom; U.S.A. Germany, Belgium, etc |
| Apparel | United Kingdom |
| Leather Goods | United Kingdom |
| Machinery | United Kingdom; U.S.A. |
| Wheat | U. S. A.; Australia |
| Maize | Argentine Republic; Others |
| Rice | India; Others |
| Beef | Australia; Argentina |
| Mutton | Australia; Argentina |
| Preserved Meat | U. S. A.; U.K.; Others |
| Coal | United Kingdom |
| Iron & Steel | United Kingdom |
| Sugar | Mauritius; Natal; Germany |
| Furniture | United Kingdom; U.S.A. Germany, etc |
| Woollens | United Kingdom |
| Tobacco | United Kingdom; U.S.A; Others |
| Butter | Australia; U.K.; Holland; Others |
| Leather | U. K.; Australia; Others |
| Milk | United Kingdom |
| Soap | United Kingdom |
| Tea | United Kingdom; Natal; Others |
| Timber | Sweden; U.S.A.; India, Norway, etc |
| Fish | United Kingdom; U.S.A.; Others |

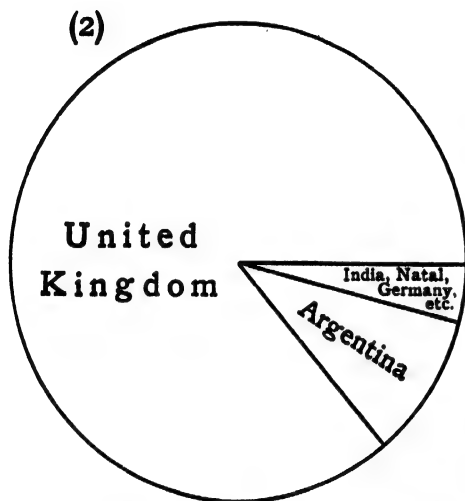
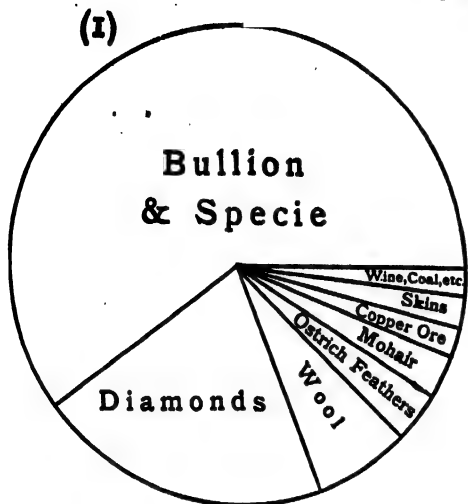
The following sets of graphs represent the movement of the imports of the chief commodities obtained by Cape Colony from external countries during 1887–1903:—

Chief Imports of Cape Colony, 1887–1903

The principal fact to be noted in connection with these graphs is the sudden increase of imports of most commodities since the war. This represents, of course, an altogether abnormal state of affairs, and some decrease is almost sure to follow. The war has been responsible for a complete dislocation of South African industry and trade, and it is not always easy to construct tables and diagrams representing the normal activity of the sub-continent. There is a striking increase in the value of various food commodities imported, such as meat, provisions, grain, and flour, and in all of these Australia has now a large share. The imports of railway and tramway materials show an increase on the periodic plan, with maxima in 1891, 1897, and 1903, that is, at six-year intervals, and corresponding minima in 1895 and 1899.

Britain's Exports to Cape Colony

The accompanying diagram shows the principal commodities exported from the United Kingdom to Cape Colony, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. The total value in a recent year was about £6,000,000.

Among the other commodities exported to Cape Colony from the United Kingdom the following may be mentioned: Aerated waters, horses, arms and ammunition, bags and sacks, beer and ale, biscuits and cakes, books, brooms and brushes, candles, rubber manufactures, cement, chemicals, cordage, earthenware, electrical goods, fish, glassware, hats, linens, brassware, copper, musical instruments, floor-cloth, painters' materials, paper, confectionery and preserves, provisions, ships and boats, silks, soap, spirits, sugar, tobacco, toys and games, umbrellas.

## C. Exports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal commodities exported from Cape Colony, and their relative value according to recent returns; and (2) the principal countries of destination of the exports of Cape Colony.

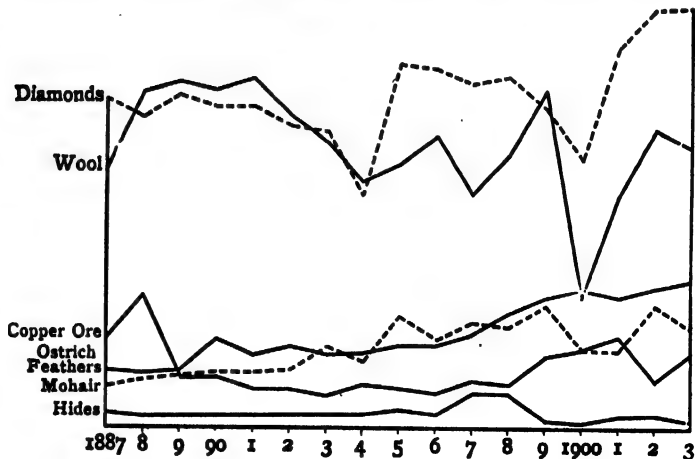
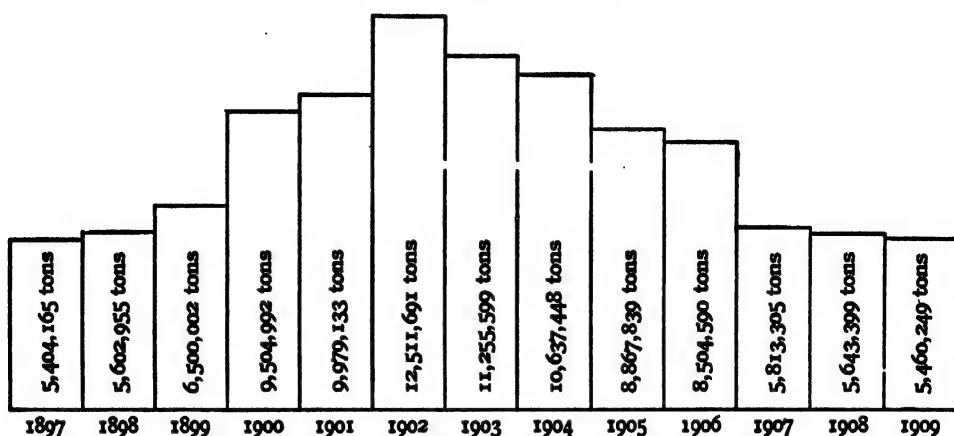
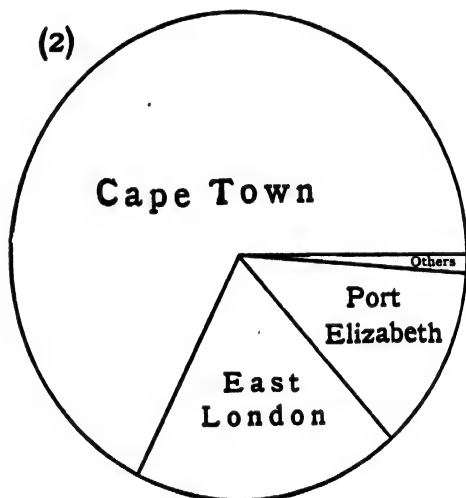
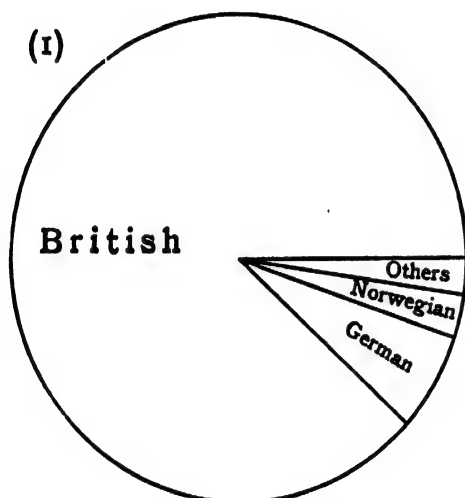
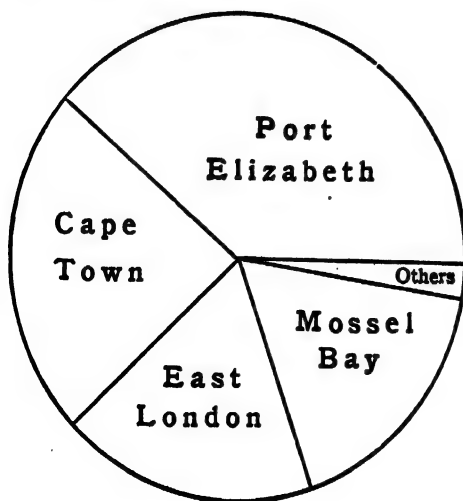
| Commodity | Destination | |
|---|---|---|
| Diamonds | United Kingdom | Belgium, etc. |
| Wool | United Kingdom | Germany etc. |
| Ostrich Feathers | United Kingdom | Germany etc. |
| Mohair | Practically all to U. K. | |
| Skins & Hides | Practically all to U. K. | |
| Copper Ore | All to United Kingdom | |
| Wine | Natal, United Kingdom, etc. | |

The above diagram shows the chief countries of destination of the principal commodities exported from Cape Colony, with the exception of bullion and specie. This diagram brings out in a striking way the practical monopoly of the export trade of Cape Colony which is at present possessed by the United Kingdom.

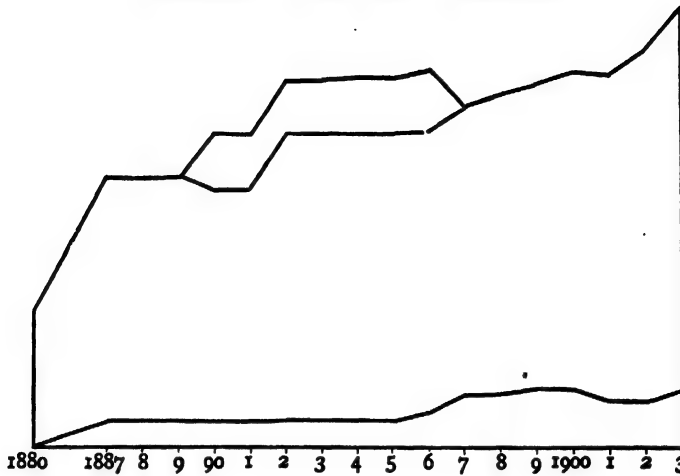
| Diamonds | Wool | Ostrich Feathers | Mohair | Skins | Copper Ore, etc. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

The above diagram shows the principal commodities (apart from bullion and specie) imported into the United Kingdom from Cape Colony, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. Total value in a recent year, about £14,000,000.

Minor imports into the United Kingdom from Cape Colony include the following commodities: Horses, drugs, dyeing and tanning stuffs, grapes and plums, horns and hoofs, guano, pig and sheet lead, manufactured tobacco, whalebone, wine, furniture woods and hard woods.

The accompanying set of graphs shows the movement during 1887–1903 of the export from Cape Colony of the chief commodities sent to other countries. The scale for diamonds is one-quarter of that used in the corresponding imports diagrams; for the other commodities, one-half.

## Shipping and Ports

The above diagram shows the movement of tonnage entered and cleared at the ports of Cape Colony during the period 1897–1909. After 1906 net tonnage of steam vessels is counted in place of gross tonnage.

The above circle diagrams show the distribution of the tonnage entered at the ports of Cape Colony (1) among the principal flags concerned, and (2) among the principal ports of the colony.

The accompanying circle diagram shows the distribution among the principal ports of the colony of the tonnage entered in the coasting trade, according to the returns of a recent year.

A comparison of the two port diagrams shows that Port Elizabeth takes the lead in the coasting trade, although in the external shipping trade it is beaten not only by Cape Town, but also by the rising port of East London. Mossel Bay, too, which is of no importance for external shipping, takes a prominent place as a coasting port. South Africa suffers from a lack of good natural harbours.

## Railways, Posts, and Telegraphs

The above graphs show the development of the railway system of Cape Colony during 1880–1903. The upper graph represents the growth of the total railway system, government and private; the lower one, the growth of the private system only. From 1890 to 1896 361 miles of railway in the Orange Free State were worked by the Cape Government. If these are added to the Cape system the upper graph follows the upper side of the loop; if they are excluded, it follows the lower side. The figures for 1903 are: Private Lines, 403 miles; Government Lines, 2516 miles. For 1909 they are: Private Lines, 381 miles; Government Lines, 3312 miles.

The postal statistics of the colony for a recent year were as follows: Letters posted, 40,684,310; newspapers, &c., 24,284,870; post-cards, 3,132,406; parcels, 649,428.

The accompanying graph shows the growth of the telegraph system as represented by the length of line during 1887–1903. The length of line in 1903 was 7812 miles, and the length of wire in that year was 29,774 miles. In 1909 the length of line was 8272 miles. The telegraphs, like most of the railways, are in the possession of the Government, and worked by civil servants.

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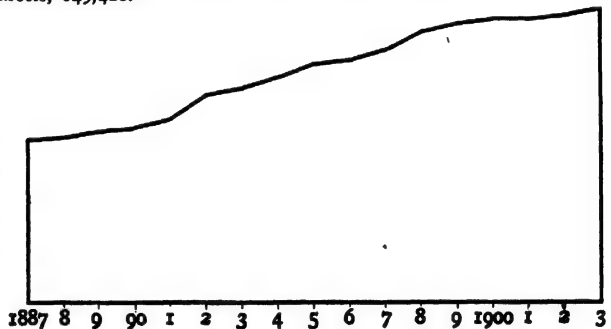
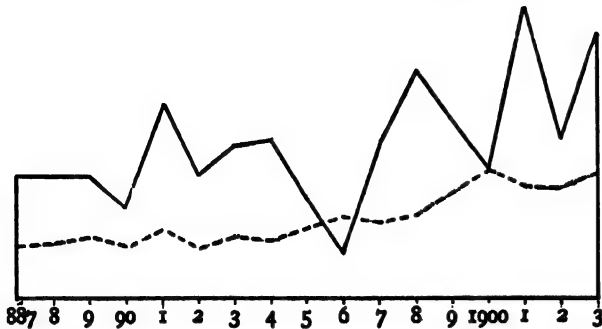
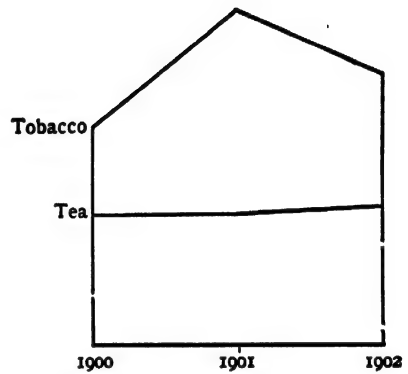
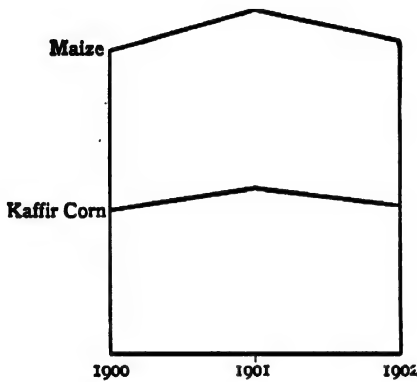

# NATAL

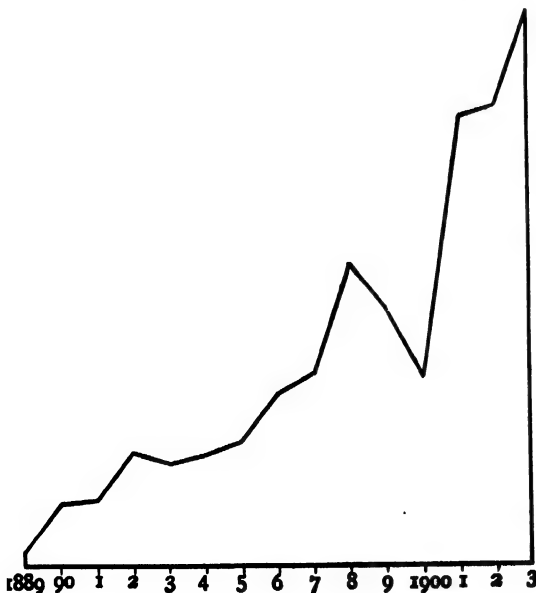
## Area and Population

Natal, with an area of about 35,370 square miles, has a population of rather more than a million. It is thus about a fifth larger than Scotland, but has a population only about equal to that of Glasgow. The area above given includes Zululand, which was formally annexed to the colony in 1897, and the districts, chiefly Vryheid and Utrecht, which were transferred from the Transvaal early in 1903 as a result of the South African war.

## Population according to Race

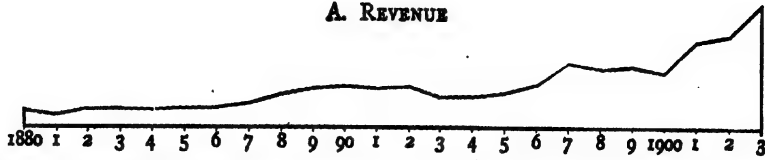
| Races. | Number, 1904. |
|---|---|
| Europeans and Whites ... ... | 97,109 |
| Indians and Asiatics ... ... | 100,918 |
| Natives in Service ... ... ... | 79,978 |
| Mixed Races ... ... ... | 6,686 |
| Natives in Locations and Native Areas ... ... ... ... | 824,063 |
| Total ... ... ... | 1,108,754 |

## Agriculture

The accompanying graphs show the development of sugar cultivation in Natal during the period 1887–1903. The full graph shows the variation in output (33,950 tons in 1903), and the dotted graph the variation in area under sugar (33,282 acres in 1903). The figures for 1905 were: 26,603 tons, and 45,905 acres.

The above graphs show the output of maize, Kaffir corn, tobacco, and tea in Natal in 1900–1902. The figures or 1902 are: Maize, 4,016,226 bushels; Kaffir corn, 1,906,000 bushels; tobacco, 3,478,503 lbs.; tea, 1,796,230 lbs.

## Minerals

The accompanying graph shows the development of the coal output of Natal during the period 1889–1903. The output in 1903 was 713,548 tons (2240 lbs. each, or long tons), valued at £418,975 at the pit's mouth. The output in 1905 was 1,129,407 tons, valued at £467,162.

The coal-field of Natal is in the north-west, around Dundee and Newcastle. It was within the area of the South African war, and accordingly production was checked during the Boer invasion. This is shown in the diagram by a fall in the curve from 1898 to 1900. The diagram also shows a great expansion in the output since the repulse of the Boer invasion. The shale found in the coal-beds is said to be rich in paraffin and sulphate of ammonia, and to offer the basis of a lucrative industry similar to that in a part of eastern Scotland.

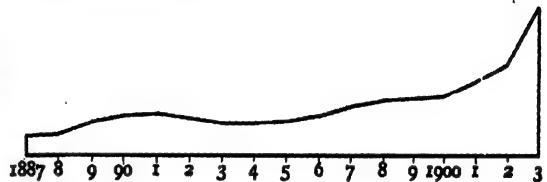
## Finance

### A. Revenue

The above graph shows the movement of the revenue of Natal during the period 1880–1903. The revenue in 1903 was £4,334,175.

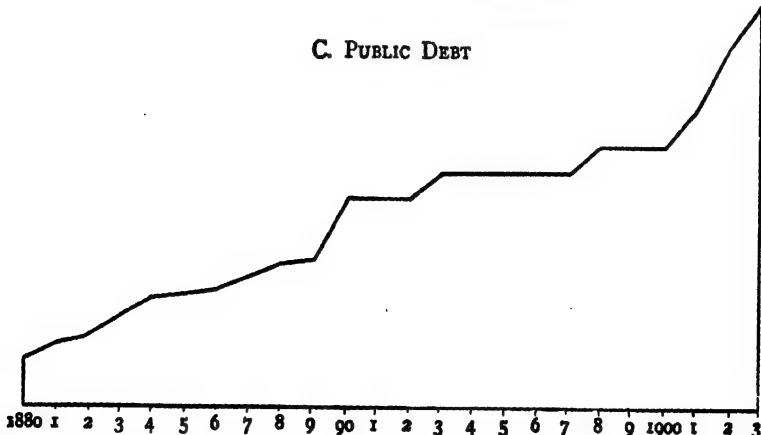
The following are the details of the revenue for a recent year:—

| Sources of Revenue. | Amount. |
|---|---|
| Railways ... ... ... ... | £2,286,963 |
| Customs ... . ... ... | 1,068,640 |
| Excise ... ... ... ... | 54,367 |
| Land Sales... .. .. ... | 70,591 |
| Post-Office... ... ... ... | 173,226 |
| Telegraphs... ... ... ... | 63,918 |
| Stamps and Licenses (including Hut Tax) ... ... ... | 301,084 |
| Port Dues ... .. ... ... | 77,858 |
| Other Receipts .. ... ... | 237,528 |
| Total ... ... ... | £4,334,175 |

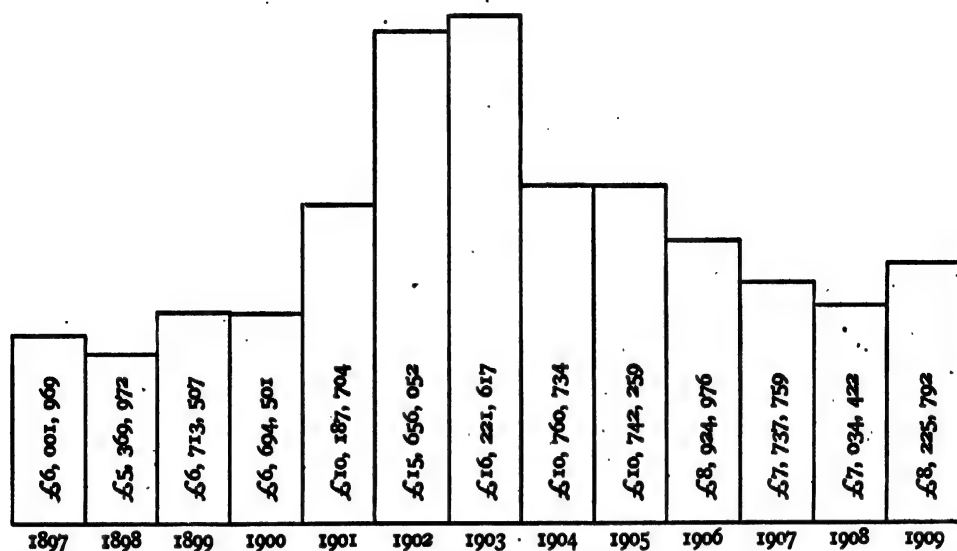
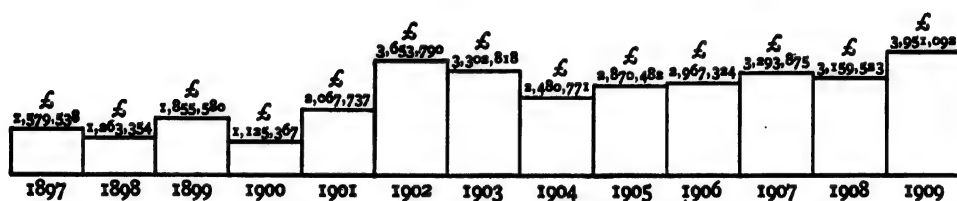
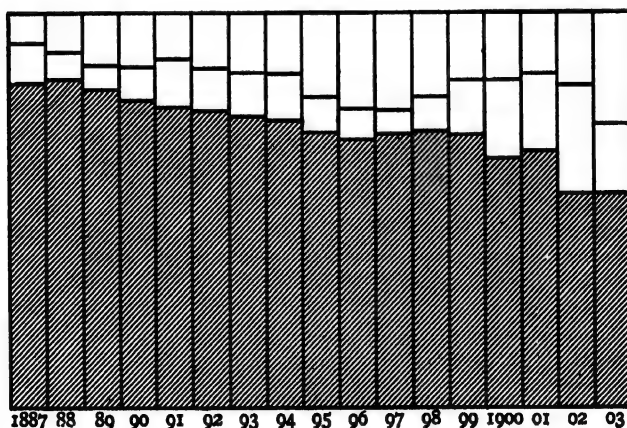
### B. Expenditure

The accompanying graph shows the movement of the expenditure of Natal during the period 1887–1903. The expenditure in 1903 was £5,039,003.

The following are the details of the expenditure of Natal in a recent year:—

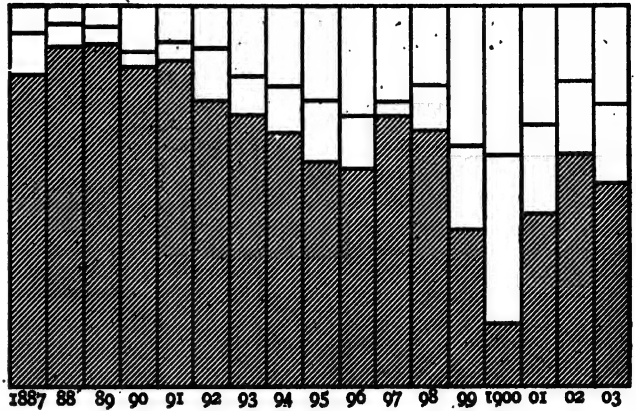
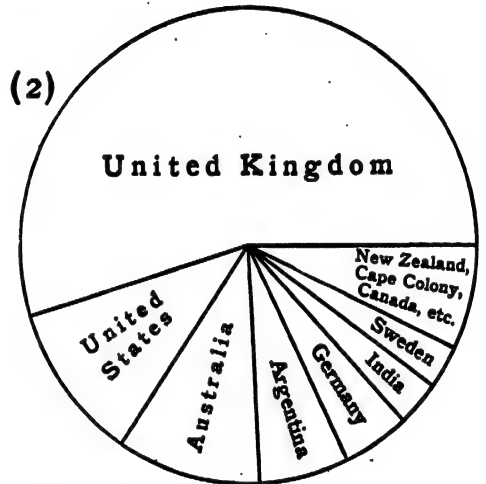
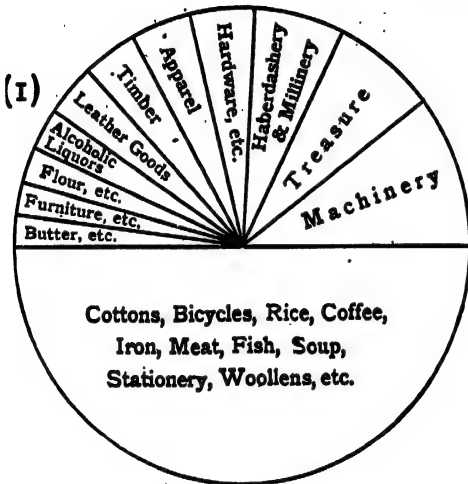
| Heads of Expenditure. | Amount. |
|---|---|
| Railways ... ... ... ... | £1,610,041 |
| Public Works ... .. ... | 271,863 |
| Other Expenses ... .. ... | 3,157,099 |
| Total ... ... ... | £5,039,003 |

### C. Public Debt

The above graph shows the movement of the public debt of Natal during the period 1880–1903. In 1903 the debt stood at £14,019,143.

## Commerce

### A. The Course of Trade

The above diagram shows the movement of imports into Natal during 1897–1909.

The above diagram shows the movement of exports from Natal during 1897–1909.

The above diagram shows the share of the United Kingdom and the British colonies in the imports of Natal in each year from 1887 to 1903 inclusive. The shaded portion of each rectangle represents Britain's share, and the middle part represents the colonial share.

This diagram shows that Britain's share in the import trade of Natal has been declining for many years, and is now little over one-half. The loss to Britain represents in part, as the diagram shows, a gain to British possessions, but also a gain to foreign countries.

The accompanying diagram shows the share of the United Kingdom and the British possessions in the exports of Natal in each year from 1887 to 1903 inclusive. The shaded portion of each rectangle represents Britain's proportion of the total, and the middle division represents the colonial proportion. Britain's share in the export trade of Natal, unlike her share in the corresponding trade of Cape Colony, shows a marked but irregular decline. The share of British possessions tends to increase.

B. Imports

The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal commodities imported into Natal and their relative value according to the returns of a recent year, and (2) the principal countries of origin of the imports into Natal.

The accompanying graphs show the variation from year to year during 1887–1903 of the value of certain commodities imported into Natal. The most noteworthy fact brought out by this diagram is the periodic movement in imports of machinery. The years 1890, 1897, and 1902 were years of maximum importation of machinery, but on the average there is a steady increase. The marked irregularity of the rise has doubtless its explanation in the circumstances which determine the local demand for machinery.

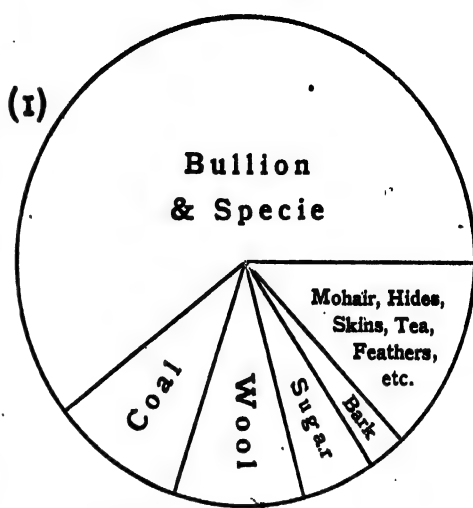
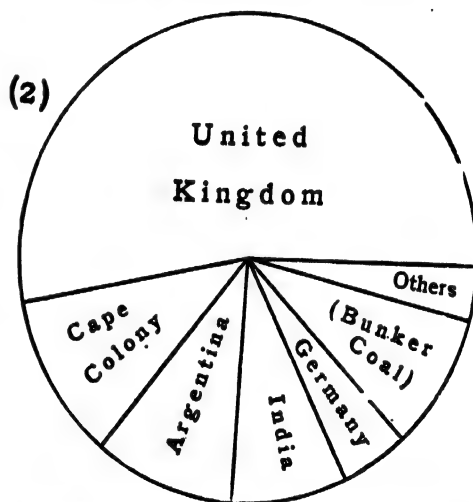
The above diagram shows the principal countries of origin of the chief commodities imported into Natal, and the relative importance of these countries in each case according to recent returns. In three-fifths of the above commodities, including several of the most important, the United Kingdom takes first place. It is interesting to note that Australia takes the leading position in the case of butter, beef, and mutton.

| Iron | Apparel & Haberdashery | Machinery | Cottons | Leather | Furniture, Woollens, Linens, Hardware, etc. |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |

The above diagram shows the principal commodities exported from the United Kingdom to Natal, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. The total value for a recent year was £3,500,000.

## C. Exports

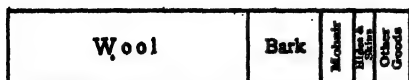
Principal Commodities exported from Natal

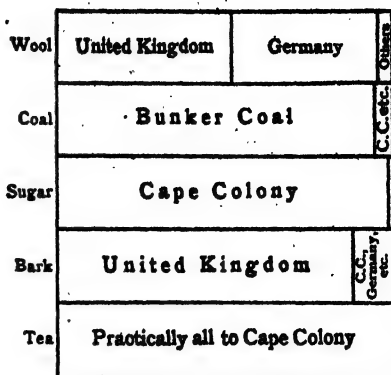
(2)
United Kingdom
Others
(Bunker Coal)
Cape Colony
Argentina
India
Germany

Principal Countries of Destination of Natal's Exports

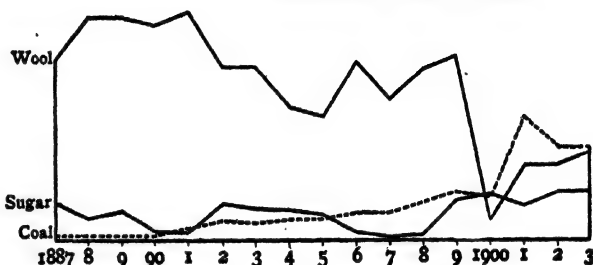
The above circle diagrams show: (1) the principal commodities exported from Natal and their relative value according to recent returns, and (2) the principal countries of destination of the exports from Natal. Bunker coal is shown apart from the countries in the second circle.

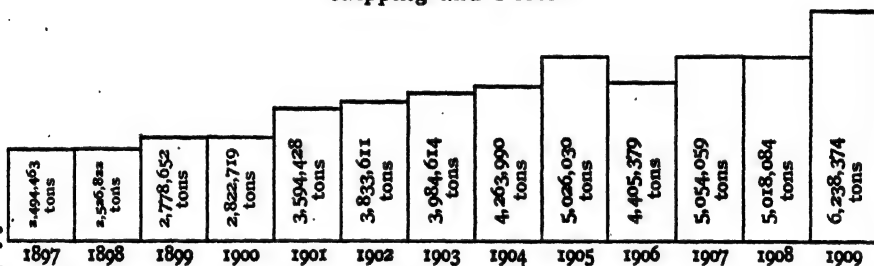
The bullion and specie exported, and taking first place among Natal's exports, is, of course, not a native product, but a product of the Transvaal, a colony which has no ports of its own. Coal, wool, sugar, and wattle-bark are the principal native exports, the coal going out of the country largely in the form of bunker coal. The tea industry of Natal is still very small, and the export of tea is trifling.

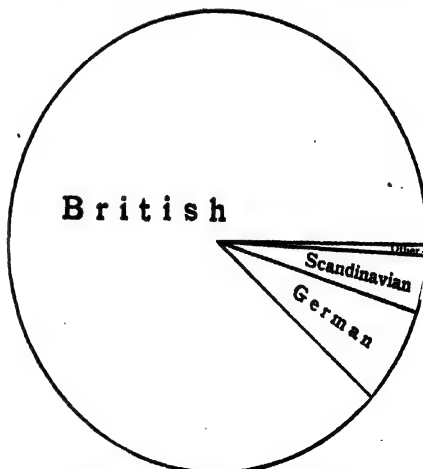
More than half of Natal's export value goes to the United Kingdom, the next best customer being the neighbouring colony of the Cape of Good Hope. Argentina, India, and Germany are the only other countries which take any conspicuous place in this connection.

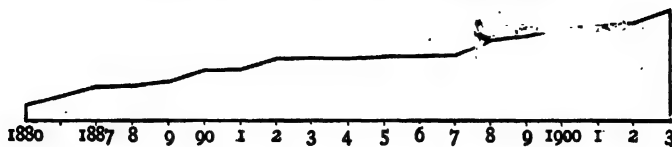
The accompanying diagram shows the principal countries of destination of the chief commodities exported from Natal, and the relative importance of the countries in each case according to recent returns.

Britain's Imports from Natal

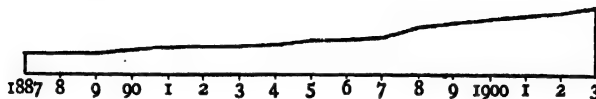
The above diagram shows the principal commodities imported into the United Kingdom from Natal, and their relative value according to the Board of Trade Returns. The total value in a recent year was about £1,800,000.

Destinations of Natal's Chief Exports

The accompanying graphs show the variation in the value of certain leading Natal exports from year to year during the period 1887–1903. The notable facts brought out clearly by the diagram are the irregular decline in the value of wool exported, the steady increase in the value of the coal export, save for the interruption of the war, and the practically stationary character of the export of sugar.

Natal's Chief Exports, 1887–1903

## Shipping and Ports

The above diagram shows the movement of tonnage entered and cleared at Port Natal (Durban), the only port of Natal, during the period 1897–1909.

The accompanying circle diagram shows the distribution among the principal flags concerned of the tonnage of shipping entered at Port Natal (Durban), the only port of Natal, in a recent year. The preceding diagram reveals a steady growth of tonnage from year to year, and the circle diagram shows the marked preponderance of British shipping in the total tonnage. Germany is obtaining an increasing share of Natal's tonnage, and Scandinavian ships make up most of the remainder. The German advance here, as in other parts of the world, is due to determined enterprise backed by Government support.

Nationality of Shipping entered at Durban

## Railways, Posts, and Telegraphs

The above graph shows the growth of the railway system of Natal during 1880–1903. The length of railway in 1903 was 718 miles, in 1905, 826 miles, all but 8 miles belonging to the government.

The postal statistics for a recent year were as follows: 21,694,244 letters and post-cards; 8,351,772 books, papers, &c.; 220,740 parcels; 133,463 money orders issued.

The above graph shows the growth of the telegraph system of the colony of Natal, as represented by the length of line, during 1887–1903. The length of telegraph line in 1903 was 1722 miles, the length of wire being 4677 miles. The length of line in 1905 was 1811 miles.